

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 12, 1878.

The Week.

CONGRESS has been working on half-time. On Wednesday week resolutions were passed in both houses looking to the appointment of a joint Congressional Committee to consider the best means of preventing the spread of yellow fever. Mr. Stanley Matthews was not humored in his desire to take up the Texas and Pacific Bill. The House passed a bill to correct the probably fraudulent omission from an appropriation bill of the last session of a clause providing for the Hot Springs reservation. On Monday the silver-men in the House came out in force, introducing various measures to make the Dollar of our Fathers bankable and redeemable at the Treasury in greenbacks, and to redeem and suppress the trade-dollar. Mr. Durham, of Kentucky, moved a suspension of the rules to pass his bill for thus disposing of the trade-dollar, and though he failed of the necessary two-thirds, he secured a majority of 154 to 91. Mr. Fort, of Illinois, was equally fortunate and unfortunate in his endeavor to pass at once a bill threatening any bank that refused to receive the legal-tender dollar on a par with gold and paper with a withdrawal of its circulation. He found 150 supporters against 89 in the negative. Mr. Page, of California, introduced a bill to enforce the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments in the case of South Carolina, and reduce its representation in Congress to two members, in consequence of a "large number of male citizens, belonging to one political party," having been, by statute and concerted fraud and terrorism, "denied the rights secured to them under the Constitution." In the Senate, the most important event was Mr. Edmunds's speech in behalf of his Electoral Bill, which has found a warm supporter in Mr. Morgan, of Alabama, and an opponent in Mr. Jones, of Florida. On Tuesday the House passed the Consular and Diplomatic and the Naval appropriation bills.

Mr. Edmunds's bill for amending the machinery for the election of President undoubtedly contains the best plan yet devised for preventing the recurrence of the trouble of 1876, and probably the best practicable plan, and has the great merit of not departing from existing Constitutional lines. First and foremost it leaves to the State absolutely the duty of deciding who are its Presidential electors, by such process as it pleases to prescribe, and thus does not permit Congress to constitute itself a returning board and "go behind the returns." In the next place it leaves the States time for this process by appointing the first Tuesday in October for the election, and the second Monday in January for the meeting of the electors, by which an interval of three months is left for a "fair count" and any necessary litigation before the courts. Had this arrangement been in force in 1876, the work of the Florida Republican electors would have been undone and a different set of electors would have cast the vote of the State, inasmuch as the Supreme Court overruled, but too late, the action of Dennis, McLin, and the virtuous Cowgill. Congress is then to meet to receive and count the votes on the second Monday in February in joint convention. When a certificate is objected to, each House is to withdraw and consult separately. If there is only one return from a State, both Houses must concur in order to reject it. If there be more than one, that which is approved by the proper State tribunal must be accepted. As to whether the tribunal is proper or not, a negative decision can only be made by both Houses concurrently. If there be no State tribunal's decision or more than one return, a vote can only be counted by the concurrence of both Houses. Congress can do the country no greater service this winter than in pushing this measure to enactment.

Apropos of Mr. Fort's resolution declaring it "defiance of the law" for a National Bank to refuse to receive silver dollars on deposit, and directing the Banking Committee to bring in a bill providing for the withdrawal of its circulation from any bank guilty of this "defiance," it is characteristic of the silver-men as of the "Latin race" to describe violations of the law in this vague-sounding manner, without mentioning or citing the statute. As we pointed out last week, there is no such "law" as Mr. Fort had in his mind. It has been referred to a good deal during the past fortnight, but it is a figment of the silver imagination. Moreover, in America, violations of the law exposing people to penalties are ascertained by judicial enquiry, and not by blatherskite resolutions in Congress. Mr. Hewitt has introduced a bill, which is said to have a chance of passing, recognizing the fact, which the silver-men have generally overlooked, that gold is by law still our unit of value, and that the Treasury in issuing a silver dollar is bound to treat it as of the same value as the gold dollar, and redeem it in gold. But he proposes also that the Treasury shall only coin and issue silver dollars on demand—that is, that it shall only make what the public calls for. This would save the Fathers' Dollar from depreciation, but it would also reveal a most unnatural indifference on the part of the people to these relics of their deceased parents. For all foolish attempts at legislation on this subject—we do not apply this remark to Mr. Hewitt's bill—the Democrats are found almost solid on the side of folly, and the Southerners among them.

Mr. Page's plan for putting an end to intimidation at the South has the same marks of childishness as Mr. Fort's plan for punishing the banks. The Fourteenth Amendment, in providing that when the right to vote is "denied" or "in any way abridged" to any of the male inhabitants of a State the basis of representation shall be proportionately reduced, undoubtedly referred to denial or abridgment by State legislation. The right to vote cannot be denied or abridged by cheating or violence at the polls, or by any illegal course. The right to vote is a legal right which only the law can take away. What has been denied at the South at the late election is the opportunity to vote, and a fair count of the votes cast. In other words, certain voters have been made the victims of a criminal offence under the State law, and what Mr. Page proposes to do is to aggravate their grievance by diminishing their weight in the Federal legislature. Moreover, how would he ascertain the number of persons who were deprived of their vote? And how could he show that because they were prevented from voting at one election they would never be allowed to vote again at any other? The remedy for what has occurred in South Carolina and elsewhere is to be found in the prosecution of offenders by the Federal and State authorities, and in the power of each House to judge of the qualifications of its own members. It sometimes seems as if "outrages" had the same muddling effect on the brain as silver.

In pursuance of the views expressed in his annual report, Secretary Sherman has sent to the House the draught of a bill embodying sundry amendments to our tariff and collection laws. First among these is a change of our sugar duties, which proposes to levy a uniform rate of 2.40 cents a pound on all raw sugars not above No. 13 in color, and not testing over 94 degrees by the polariscope or its equivalent; all sugars testing over 94 to pay the rate now assessed on sugars over No. 13 and not above No. 16 in color, *i.e.*, 3.43 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound. By thus reducing the number of dutiable grades matters would be somewhat simplified; but the change would keep the most objectionable feature of the present system alive, and by discriminating against high grades it would, in effect, merely reverse the present order of things. Of centrifugal sugars none but the highest grades could be imported to advantage, and high-test Mus-

covado sugars would become the favored class—a hint which the Cuban planters might be forced to take, but the effect of which neither our refiners nor consumers would be likely to relish. Nor could the temptation to fraud be expected to be diminished if a difference in duty of more than one cent a pound were to be made dependent upon the result of a single test. Honest importers would hardly dare to import sugars approaching a strength of 94 degrees when but a slight error of the sampler or of the chemist would be liable to change an expected profit into a loss. For such reasons as these the proposal received the unanimous condemnation of a meeting of sugar importers and refiners held here last Tuesday; but we regret to see that these gentlemen have again failed to meet it by any definite counter-proposition, and have contented themselves with asking for an adjustment of the sugar duties approaching as nearly as possible to an ad-valorem system, without, however, showing how this is to be done. We ask again, Why not unite on an ad-valorem duty pure and simple?

Several witnesses have been heard by the Indian Commission since our last issue. Secretary Schurz was examined on Friday. He disclaimed any desire as the head of a Department to retain control of the Indians, who were of course a source of great trouble and anxiety; but he insisted that in the nature of the case the function of the Army was to repress and not to civilize, and he believed in carrying on the work of civilization already prosperously begun. The present demand on the part of the Army was characterized as inconsistent with opinions published only a few years ago, and to prove this he produced a report signed in 1868 by Gen. Sherman, Gen. Augur, and other officers, expressly declaring the unwillingness of officers to instruct Indians in the peaceful arts, and deprecating on that account the transfer of the Bureau. He denied that Indian wars were due to the dishonesty of agents: the real cause of almost all of them was the breaking of treaties and encroachment by the whites. Mr. Schurz went so far in his vindication of the civil administration as to allege that honesty had not always been the rule in the Army, and that its former management of the Bureau had been disgracefully lax and slovenly. He pointed to the thorough prosecution of rascality among the agents and contractors of the Bureau which had taken place and was still going on under his direction, and closed with an enumeration of measures which he deemed important to the full success of the policy now in force. Col. A. B. Meacham testified that nearly half the whole number of Indians stood in no need whatever of military supervision, that they regarded the Army as their enemy, and found its tone "very grinding and humiliating." Commissioner Hayt went into a comparison of the respective costs of Bureau and Army transportation, and said he was "personally aware that the Indians were opposed to the proposed change." This statement has been confirmed by the voice of numerous councils held to consider the change, and which were almost unanimous against it.

Our comments a fortnight since upon Mr. Campbell's letter to the Charleston Democracy, upon the eve of the late election in South Carolina, seem to have led to a misapprehension. From the text of our remarks it might seem that we referred to *two* letters of Mr. Campbell, one before the election and another after it. Such was not the fact, and we did not intend to be so understood. We had seen nothing from Mr. Campbell beyond his letter of November 1, prior of course to the election, and calm and dispassionate in tone, but we are informed that he has written no other, so that in fact there has been since the election no "angry protest."

The *Times* calmly announces this week that Wade Hampton's leg has been amputated, after having announced last week that he was "shamming Abraham," having sustained no injury to his leg, and for the sole purpose of avoiding signing the fraudulent electoral certificates. It did not explain, though, how it was that so bad a man should take to his bed and falsely say his leg was broken, in order to escape doing a thing in which as a villain he must have delighted. What it ought to have said was that,

after having suffered amputation at the hip-joint, he insisted on sitting up in his bed, in defiance of his doctors, for the purpose of signing fraudulent documents of every description, and that, to the surprise of his attendants, the exercise had a markedly-improving effect on his health. The *Times* also defends Smalls, the convicted bribe-taker, and suggests broadly, in the teeth of that statesman's own endorsed checks, that a man who ran a Confederate steamer out of Charleston harbor during the war ought not to go to the penitentiary, even if he does take bribes; and it heaps scorn on "the bridging of the bloody chasm." The *Tribune* will see from all this how unwise its hopeful view of the President's Message was. Governor Hampton, we must add, has been elected to the United States Senate, almost unanimously.

That there were outrages and intimidation at the South during the late election is quite certain, but that the extent of them is not yet correctly known, and that it has been grossly and maliciously exaggerated, is just as certain. One of the reports soon after the election came from District-Attorney Leonard, who declared that in the parish of Caddo alone seventy-five negroes had been killed, and the others intimidated by "bands of armed men." The Boston *Advertiser*, which receives news of outrages as reverently as the *Tribune*, now publishes prominently the result of the enquiries of a Bostonian among his business friends on the spot, for whom he vouches to the uttermost. They say the Leonard story is false; and that there were no negroes killed and no armed men parading except a posse for the maintenance of order, commanded by a deputy of the Republican sheriff. They add that twenty new colored schools have been opened in the parish since the establishment of the Nicholls government. That there have been disturbances in the State there is no doubt, but Governor Nicholls has personally investigated them on the spot, and promises to punish them. As Horace Greeley so often plaintively asked: "Is there to be no end of lying?" We fear not, so long as it is meat and drink to so many able-bodied men.

Governor Holliday's long message to the General Assembly of Virginia is nearly altogether occupied with a discussion of the State debt, and is in the same temper as the address of the citizens of Richmond to which we called attention last week. He rehearses the labors of the last session which resulted in declaring the debt just and in deciding to pay it; expresses his sense of the paralyzing influence of the unsettled condition of the debt upon the prosperity of the State; occupies considerable space in defending himself from the charge of sacrificing the free public-school system to the bond-holders; states that the deficit in the revenues leaves something less than half the interest unpaid; says that this should be honorably met by increased taxation, which he estimates at thirty to forty cents on the hundred dollars—instead of twenty cents as the citizens' address stated—or by accepting propositions of the creditors who might be willing to modify their demands; and finally conveys two specific offers from responsible parties, one from London suggesting a funding of the entire debt at four per cent., gold, exempt from taxation, with coupons receivable for all demands due the State; the other from New York to the same effect, except that only consols should bear four per cent., and other bonds three and a half per cent.; both propositions provide for a sinking fund and extinguishing the debt in forty years. The Governor favors the acceptance of one of these plans and states that the deficit could then be made up without too great a strain upon the industries of the State. The whole forms a sensible argument and powerful appeal, and is pervaded by a deep sense of honor.

The important financial events of the week were: (1), the suspension of the West of England and South Wales District Bank, with deposit liabilities of \$17,500,000; (2), the consequent advance in the rate for discounts in London from 4½ to 5 per cent., and the decline in British consols from 94½ to 94¼, to 93½ to 94; (3), the fall in the price of silver bullion from 50½d. to 50½d. per oz. to 50½d.; and (4) the calling in for redemption of \$5,000,000 more of U. S.

5-20 6 per cent. bonds. The great failure above noted was the result of the depression in the coal and iron trade, although it was immediately brought about by the circulation of unsettling rumors. The bank had forty-two branches, and, while no one believes that its management was conducted in the rascally manner which characterized that of the City Bank of Glasgow, yet its unsoundness from legitimate causes is alarming, both on account of the immense amount of its deposits and as another sign of the progress of the general liquidation of the bad business of the last five years in England. It now seems inevitable that there should be many other failures of the kind there before the financial atmosphere is as clear as it is with us. Resumption prospects are bright, although it is evident that Wall-street speculators intend to do what they can to make the loan market stringent between now and February 1. Thus far they have accomplished nothing; and it is not believed that they can do more than inflict temporary annoyance. The bullion value of the 412½-grain dollar at the close of the week was \$0.8469 gold. The Treasury is willing to buy trade-dollars as bullion; a movement is on foot among bullion dealers and their friends in Congress to induce the Treasury to take them at the market value of the legal-tender 412½-grain dollar—about 99½ to 100.

The report that it was proposed to demonetize silver in India and substitute the gold standard doubtless emanated from the official class, which sends home its savings to England and is suffering a loss of twenty-five per cent. through the depreciation of silver. The operation is, however, much too large a one for the Indian Government to undertake in the present condition of its finances, even if it were desirable on general grounds, and the story has been denied. There are supposed to be about \$1,500,000,000 in circulation in silver in India, and of course the discarding of such a mass would be a tremendous undertaking. The rumor of it, which has had a certain foundation in the language of Indian officials, produced a curious effect on the silver-men here. If true to their principles, they ought to have hailed the news with joy; but it appears to have frightened them a good deal, and they have been writing articles showing that it would be an outrageous thing, and cannot happen. They forget, however, that on their own showing it is the best thing that could happen. The attraction silver has had for them all through the late discussion is that it is cheap, and therefore easy for the poor man to get hold of; consequently the cheaper it is the better, and the more of it is released elsewhere and sent to us here, the gladder we ought to be. But to follow them through their argumentation about it makes one dizzy.

We have discussed elsewhere the approaching Jingo experiment of starting a court in Canada. But the practical difficulties in the way of it, which probably never occurred to the Oriental imagination which conceived it, are amusingly described in the Canadian papers. The trouble began at Halifax, where none but "landaus, barouches, and broughams," with liveried drivers, were allowed to appear in the procession. This passed without notice, but at Montreal, where there was to be a drawing-room, the Court Chamberlain issued orders which have proved too much for the loyalty even of the *Toronto Mail* and *Globe*. The ladies to be presented were to appear in low-necked dresses, or else bring a doctor's certificate that the state of their health would not permit their doing so; but even the certificate could not relieve them from the necessity of having their high-necked dresses "cut square in front." The *Globe* characterizes this in indignant terms as "tomfoolery," and says:

"These attempts to plaster monarchical customs upon a country that is essentially democratic would do more to undermine the kindly feelings of the people toward the new Governor-General and his wife than anything else that could have happened, and, if persisted in, will assuredly make it a matter for regret that the choice of a successor to Lord Dufferin fell upon the Queen's son-in-law."

Yes, but does not our uncouth contemporary perceive that if these customs are not "to be plastered" on him, there was no use in sending him a princess? Plenty of men better fitted to adminis-

ter a plain democratic government than the Queen's son-in-law can be found in England; none so well fitted to embody the "imperial policy" in Canadian manners. The idea is great and the grumbling pitiful, but we should not be at all surprised if the Princess soon tired of a "high-necked" court circle, which arrived in common domestic hacks with drivers in the simple garb of citizens.

Lord Cranbrook has published a despatch containing a detailed history of the difference with the Amir, which makes it arise out of the failure of Lord Mayo in 1869 to give him any definite promise of assistance after he became alarmed by the conquest of Khiva by the Russians, and the persistence of Lord Northbrook in abstaining from interference in Afghan affairs. Lord Lytton was, therefore, instructed when he went out in 1874 to urge on the Amir the necessity of closer relations with the British Government, and the necessity of receiving British agents, though in a friendly way, in his territory to enable the Governor-General to act more intelligently in taking measures for his protection. It appears plain that the Amir did not want this kind of protection. He wished to be aided with arms and money, and perhaps with troops when the danger came, but feared the effects of the presence of British Residents on his independence. On being denied these things he sulked and threw himself into the arms of Russia. The object of the despatch is to show that he was mismanaged by the Gladstone Ministry, whose faults the present one is engaged in repairing. Unfortunately, the Premier's story at the Lord Mayor's dinner does not quite tally with that of Lord Cranbrook, for he says the object of the war is to obtain "a scientific frontier," which the Liberals declare is either a foolish assertion or a brutal proclamation of the right of the strongest. The disadvantage they labor under in all parliamentary debates is that if they press to a division, they make an exhibition of their numerical weakness, and if they refuse, seem to be indulging in mere empty carping.

Parliament met in England on the 5th inst., and at this writing a debate is pending in both Houses on motions censuring the Ministry for bringing on the Afghan War. Lord Beaconsfield, however, with his usual luck, was able to meet his enemies with the news of two successes, the capture of Ali Musjid and the forcing of the Peiwar Pass. On the other hand, he was compelled to produce what he has not been willing to produce—the Amir's letter in reply to the ultimatum, which came too late to prevent the opening of hostilities, and which is not unnaturally supposed to have been written after the fall of Ali Musjid, although the messenger says he was on his road before the fighting began, and was turned back by finding the Khyber Pass closed. The letter reads in English sensible and dignified, as well as peaceful, but the Indian officials will probably get the better of their critics by alleging that the forms and terms of expression in the original indicate insolence and evasiveness, as they have done with regard to other despatches of his. The worst thing he says is that the acts of the British Government have not seemed to him to correspond to their friendly professions, and he enumerates some slight grievances, but alleges that his present state of mind is one of entire friendliness, and that he is willing to receive a small temporary mission.

On the night of December 1 General Roberts succeeded in turning the Afghan position in the Peiwar Pass, and captured it in the afternoon of the next day with comparatively small loss. The guns he took had been well served; the enemy had even assumed the offensive, under the inspiration or with the aid, according to one story, of Europeans. The stores they left in their flight proved a most useful acquisition. Altogether, the victory has been very comforting to the home Government. From General Browne there is no other news than that the advance on Jalalabad is determined on. There are rumors that the Amir has fled from Cabul in consequence of a revolution there, and that his family have sought refuge in Russian Turkistan. General Biddulph has been ordered to push on to Candahar by the Khojak Pass, ascertained to be without defenders.

SOUTHERN AND NORTHERN DEMOCRATS.

WE printed last week a letter from a South-Carolinian, part of which brings out in a striking way the anomalous character of the discussion now raging between the Republican party at the North and the Southern Democrats. He said, what we believe is quite true, that the term "Democrat" means something different at the South from what it means at the North, though the distinction is constantly ignored by the Northern press. The Northern Democrat has, as has been abundantly illustrated during the last ten years, no fixed principles and no definite aim beyond getting into power and having a chance at the offices. He is ready to adopt almost any political doctrine, however much opposed to the old party philosophy, as is shown in the present position of the party towards the currency. He is willing to nominate any candidate, no matter what his antecedents may be, who seems likely to win, as was shown in the nomination of Greeley. With a loose creed of this kind he naturally expects to secure most proselytes among the most ignorant and least reflective of the community, and he is therefore inclined to countenance or advocate legislative attacks on property, and all measures which seem likely to diminish the influence of capital and belittle the importance of skill and training of any kind in public affairs. The completeness with which a man like Butler was able to sweep almost the whole party into support of him in Massachusetts by preaching doctrines which, if carried out, would destroy the public credit and discourage all private saving, illustrated sufficiently, in fact, the composition of the party and its tendencies.

The party which occupies the corresponding position at the South is really the Republican party—that is to say, the Republican party there contains in the main the needy and ignorant element of the population, and the part most easily led by demagogues, and least influenced by any political considerations not relating to the immediate supply of their personal wants. Nor is the kind of government such a party would set up matter of speculation at the South, as it is at the North. In South Carolina the experiment was actually tried for seven or eight years, and was found, as might have been expected on *à priori* grounds, to consist in the election of a legislature composed in the main of illiterate and penniless men, led by worthless adventurers, who used their power almost exclusively to levy taxes and pledge the credit of the State to raise money for division among themselves. In fact, the South Carolina Republicans differed from the Massachusetts Butlerites principally in being much more ignorant and impressionable, and weaker and more helpless. They could not, for instance, have held the government at all without the support of the Federal troops. The Democrats at the South, especially in States like South Carolina and Mississippi, where the negroes are in a majority, occupy somewhat the same ground as the Massachusetts Republicans at the late election; that is, they are trying to keep out of power a party which would probably by its legislation increase taxation, destroy public and private credit, and disorder the machinery of administration.

Of course this is not the whole story. The Southern Democrats' history is very different from that of the Massachusetts Republicans, and the history of the Southern Republicans is very different from that of the Massachusetts Democrats. The two parties in the South are represented by traditions and passions, such as the memories of slavery and of the war, and race prejudices, of which nothing is known in Northern politics, and which are exceedingly powerful—so powerful as almost to take them out of the category of political parties altogether, and give them the character of irreconcilable factions, one fierce, vindictive, and masterful, the other timid and submissive. But it still remains true that covering the Southern whites and the Northern Democrats by the same name, and arguing on the assumption that they are in pursuit of the same political ends, works great confusion in the public mind, and hinders any rational solution of what is called the Southern problem. It begets and perpetuates an implacable, absolute, semi-military way of looking at Southern questions, by presenting the Southern whites con-

stantly to the mind's eye in the simple character of subjugated public enemies who are kicking against their defeat, and the negroes in the simple character of oppressed freedmen who are devotedly loyal to the Union. But the character of both whites and blacks, as political phenomena, is very complex. They are ex-rebels and ex-slaves, it is true, but they are a great many things besides.

There is another serious difficulty in Northern discussion of Southern affairs of which but little notice has been taken. In every free country in which there is no privileged class, every voter, as a rule, who is urging other voters to adopt a certain course, is proposing an experiment in the consequences of which he means to share himself. That is, he does not say, "Do this"; he says, "Let us do it. I am willing to try it, and, if it turns out ill, will bear my share of the suffering or loss it may cause." Under our political system this community of interest has been kept up by the semi-independence of the States. State legislation is advocated and framed, without interference from the outside, by the persons whom it is to affect, and the interest of the people of other States in it is mainly a mild speculative interest. Federal legislation in like manner is confined on the whole to subjects to which the whole country stands in the same relation. So that it may be said that, as a general rule, an American orator or writer when addressing his countrymen with fervor about anything is supporting measures in which he means to prove his confidence by exposing his own person or property to their operation. In fact, it is an essential condition of good government that all who are exerting effective influence for or against legislation in any particular community should be "in the same boat," as the popular saying is. This condition is to a certain extent violated, however, when Northern men insist that Southern States like South Carolina and Mississippi shall try the experiment of letting an ignorant and non-property-holding majority carry on the government. A proposal to hand over the government of Massachusetts, for instance, to such a body of persons as the majority of Mississippi or South Carolina, would fill all the present voters of that State with consternation, and if urged vehemently from the outside as an excellent thing to do, would be fiercely resented. Even the short step in that direction lately taken by Butler roused the fear and indignation of the best portion of the community. Considering what has occurred at the South since 1860, this is not an argument in favor of no greater interest on the part of the North in State legislation at the South than in State legislation at the West or on the Pacific Coast. But it is an argument, and a very strong one, in favor of great moderation, patience, and good temper in discussing Southern affairs, and against treating Southern questions as if names bore the same meaning in the old slave States that they bear here. We cannot be too careful or passionless in urging people to try experiments with their social and material interests of which we ourselves intend to be simply spectators.

On the other hand, Southerners make a tremendous mistake in supposing that their mode of protecting themselves against the rule of ignorant majorities can ever become a matter of indifference to the North. People here, considering the demonstrated dangers with which this rule in certain parts of the South threatens both life and property, will not be disposed to concern themselves much about the use of the ordinary social influences—such as that of employer over the employed, landlord over tenant, and neighbor over neighbor—in order to prevent the perpetuation of the color line in politics. In fact, few thinking men will deny that the agreement of the negroes with the whites on matters of State concern, and in support of all legislation designed to operate on both races equally, will probably be, for the present at least, until they have more political education, the wisest course they can pursue. Whatever the faults of the Wade Hamptons may be, they are better political advisers for a poor and ignorant man than the Smallses and Swailses and Bowens and other rascals who have made South Carolina politics a trade. But attempts to compel this agreement by violence or physical coercion, or to produce the appearance of it where it does not exist, by fraud at the polls or in the counting, concern not only the States in which they take place but the whole country, because, even if

they do not unfairly affect national legislation, they help to bring the whole machinery of popular government into contempt. The men who are sent up to Congress from South Carolina by ballot-stuffing or false counting may be better than or as good as those who would have been sent by a fearless vote and a fair canvass, but it is none the less true that electoral frauds which treat as a farce the process by which the popular will is ascertained, if practised with impunity, help to sap the foundations of our institutions everywhere. The spectacle, even, is mischievous and alarming in New York or Massachusetts, and no rational Southerner can hope for the sympathy of the North in any such mode of effecting his deliverance. Nothing can be either constructed or repaired by fraud. It vitiates everything; it disgusts everybody in the long run, and men who rely on it for salvation are unfit for political fellowship under free institutions.

THE NATIONAL BANKS.

THE excellence of its banking system is one of the most encouraging features of the present material situation of the United States. With all the elements of a solid prosperity which are afforded by cheap labor, abundant crops, vast mineral resources, established industries, unexampled facilities of transportation, and a favorable condition of foreign trade, we have also the most perfect system in the world for gathering and applying the working capital by which alone the machinery of production and distribution can be kept in motion. The skilful handling of this sort of capital has been hitherto asserted to be the chief excellence of Great Britain, a country which has, no doubt, outran all others in the business of rescuing every penny from idleness and in getting the utmost possible work out of it. Recent events, however, show very plainly that in this excessive parsimony of working capital England has risked too much, and has brought her monetary machinery into such a sensitive condition as seriously to disturb her industries. In a recent article on the Government supervision of banks, we took occasion to point out that the English banking system is radically defective in several important particulars. The annual report of the Comptroller of the Currency of the United States, since published, gives emphasis to these strictures, and brings out into strong relief against the background of recent British failures the superiority of the American banking system.

No country ever went through a more perilous experience than that which the United States has had to encounter in the last twenty years—a protracted civil war entailing enormous losses of accumulated property; the subversion of the social system of nearly one-half the States, and the suspension of their production for a series of years; and, finally, a delusive period of succeeding prosperity built upon the phantasm of irredeemable paper money. By a providential necessity the old and diverse systems of banking and paper money were swept away, and a new, guarded, and homogeneous system established in their places, at an early period of the war. This system was so wisely designed, and has been so carefully and honestly administered, that at the end of fifteen years since its establishment, and after a crisis of unexampled severity and continuance, the entire losses sustained by the public from the operations of more than two thousand banks which have been organized under it have been less than six millions and a half of dollars. This result could not have been realized but for the wise provision of the national law by which, after keeping the capital sound, one-tenth of the net earnings is required to be put aside as a surplus fund. Out of this surplus the banks have been enabled within the last three years to charge off the very large sum of \$64,000,000, and still to maintain an aggregate surplus of \$118,000,000, being more than 25 per cent. on their paid-up capital. Not a dollar has been lost to bill-holders. In contrast with this result the average annual losses sustained *by bill-holders alone* in the United States from bank failures, under the State system, are said by the Comptroller of the Currency to have amounted to five per cent. on the amount of circulation issued. On the existing circulation of the National Banks (322 millions) a like percentage of loss would amount

to more than sixteen millions of dollars annually, being more than double the amount of profit which they derive from the circulation, and two millions a year more than the interest which they receive from national bonds.

There are no means of ascertaining the precise amount of losses to depositors under former systems of banking, but they doubtless exceeded the losses to bill-holders, who were in many cases secured creditors. A single Scottish bank has lately failed with a deficiency of assets amounting to \$26,000,000, or more than four times the entire losses sustained from our National Banks during the last fifteen years. From this loss the holder of the notes of the City Bank of Glasgow is not exempt, as he stands in no better position than any other creditor. The state of British banking thus disclosed is in nowise bettered by the fact that the private property of ruined shareholders may possibly make good this enormous loss.

There is another large economy which the country derives from the national banking system—the saving in domestic exchange. Whereas under former systems the rates of exchange between St. Louis, Cincinnati, Chicago, and New York were commonly from ten to fifteen dollars per thousand (1 to 1 per cent.), they are now frequently at and under par, and do not exceed an average of eighty cents per thousand, or less than one-tenth of one per cent. The Comptroller estimates the annual saving thus derived by the country at from twenty to sixty millions of dollars. The extreme rates of exchange which used occasionally to prevail far exceeded the ordinary averages above given. Thus, in 1860, before the war, exchange at St. Louis and Chicago on New York was at ten per cent.

Those who join in the popular outcry against the National Banks clearly do not understand the advantages which the people have gained from this system. In place of bank-notes which were either unsecured and practically irredeemable, or secured only by doubtful State stocks or local mortgages, and redeemed only at the obscure places of their origin, or at remote local centres—notes which were uncurrent money in the larger part of the country—they have now a currency of notes of uniform appearance and of equal value, prepared by the Federal Government and issued by it to the banks on pledge of the national bonds. These notes are convertible into gold and silver at many convenient centres, and have securities for their redemption such as were never before put behind the paper money of any country. These securities are not merely the Federal bonds deposited against the bank-note issue, but the entire assets of the banks, buttressed by a personal liability of stockholders and the guaranty of the Federal Government to boot. In place of banks created under the laws of more than thirty States, often with fictitious capital, seldom guarded by any vigilant oversight of the State, the fomenters of speculation and the earliest victims of the crises which they helped to precipitate, we have a single homogeneous system, free to all on the same conditions, jealously guarded in all its operations by the Federal Government, and by means of which the disasters of a crisis of unparalleled severity and endurance have been greatly mitigated.

The national banking system belongs to the people. Capitalists did not create it, did not ask for it; the State banks did their utmost, in many States, to resist its adoption. This was notably the case in the State of New York, where the whole influence of the Banking Department was for a time strenuously opposed to it. It was finally forced upon the State banks under the penalty of destructive taxation. The National Banks of New York and of most great cities are to-day indifferent to the continuance of the system. It checks their freedom of action and it diminishes some of their sources of profit. The banks and banking classes of all the Southern States are impatient to get rid of its stringent and protective obligations. Many of the principal Southern cities, through their Chambers of Commerce, are asking for the repeal of the ten per cent. prohibitory tax. Southern Congressmen have favored this repeal in their speeches during the late canvass, and it is likely to come before Congress as a serious measure during the present session. The proposition is insidious, and if adopted it will be destruc-

tion of the national banking system, the whole potency and usefulness of which will be lost when it ceases to be the exclusive issuer of bank-notes.

The circulation is of little value to city banks, being far less in amount than the deposits, which are the principal source of revenue. But it is essential to many country banks, and without it they would cease to exist. They have small deposits, and under State laws would enjoy only a limited circulation. As National Banks, the notes which they issue are as good and in as high credit as those of the Bank of Commerce of New York, however obscure the seat of their business, and however small the amount of their capital. The wide diffusion of bank capital is of the greatest value in developing the resources and in maintaining the industries of all parts of the country. Under the wise and uniform safeguards of a federal system, the small borrowers and the small depositors of a remote country village are as well cared for as the great merchants and rich manufacturers of the largest cities. This would not be the case if the national law were repealed and the people remitted to any system which could be substituted for it by State legislation. The hard, exacting village money-lender would again become the master of the situation, and banks would spring up to oppress and defraud the people, instead of ministering to their necessities and fostering their business.

The popular jealousy of the National Banks is without justification. They are not owned by capitalists, more than one-half of their shareholders owning \$1,000 or less each. They are not excessively profitable; "even during the most prosperous years of the system the ratio of annual earnings to the combined capital and surplus of the banks was not greatly in excess of the usual legal rates of interest in the States where they were located, while during the last two years this ratio has been less than six per cent. on the combined capital and surplus." In Great Britain, where the average rate of interest does not exceed half the American average, the profits of bank capital are nearly double those realized in this country. The influence of capital is far greater there than here, and the oversight of the state and the safeguards imposed by law in the interest of all the people far less. If a political crusade is to be begun against the National Banks, it should be met by a wide-spread, unpartisan, popular remonstrance. Let the laborer join with the employer of labor in resisting any attempt to deprive the country of the best friend and ally which American labor ever had, and such a friend and ally as no possible conjunction of national affairs will ever again give it.

"COURT CIRCLES."

THE passionate excitement created in Canada by the arrival of a daughter of the Queen, and the prospect of the establishment of "a court" in Ottawa, which will have the appearance of a real court—that is, a court with blood-royal in it, instead of a court held merely by the Queen's legal representatives—is a phenomenon of considerable interest. It affords a fresh illustration of that growth of reverence for royalty which all the best observers agree has for the last forty years been going on in England, side by side with the growth of democratic feeling and opinion in politics—that is, the sovereign has more than gained as a social personage what she has lost as a political personage. The less she has had to do with the Government the more her drawing-rooms have been crowded, and the more eager have people become for personal marks of her favor. The reason of this is not far to seek. It lies in the enormous increase during that period in the size of the class which is not engaged in that, to the heralds, accursed thing—trade, and has money enough to bear the expense of "a presentation," and of living or trying to live afterwards in the circle of those who might be invited to court, or might meet the Prince of Wales at dinner. The accumulation of fortunes since the Queen's accession has been very great, and they have, however made, come into possession now of a generation which has never been engaged in any occupation frowned on by the Lord Chamberlain, and which owns estates, or at all events possesses all outward marks of gentility, when it has been received by the Queen, and has got into Burke's Dictionary at the end of an interesting though perhaps apocryphal genealogy. This reception is the crown of life's struggle, a sort of certificate that the hero

or heroine of it is fit company for anybody in the world. It is, in fact, a social graduation. When you get somebody who is himself a graduate to agree to present you, and the Lord Chamberlain, after examining your card, makes no objection to you, he virtually furnishes you with a sort of diploma which guarantees you against what may be called authorized snubs. People may afterwards decline your invitations on the ground that they do not like you, or that your entertainments bore them, but not on the ground that your social position is inferior to their own. That the struggle for this diploma in a wealthy and large society should be great and increasing is nothing wonderful. The desire for it among the women especially, to whose charge the creation and preservation of "position" are mainly committed, is very deep. It inflames their imagination in a way which makes husbands ready for anything in order to get it, and in fact makes it indispensable to their peace of mind and body that they should get it as soon as their pecuniary fortune seems to put it within their reach. Since the Queen ascended the throne the population has risen from 20,000,000 to 35,000,000, and the number of great fortunes and presentable people has increased in a still greater ratio, and the pressure on the court has grown correspondingly; but there remains after all only one court to gratify the swarm of new applicants. The colonies, too, have of late years contributed largely to swell the tide. Every year London society and the ranks of the landed gentry are reinforced by returned Australians and New-Zealanders and Cape-of-Good-Hopes and China and India merchants, who feel that their hard labors and long exile have left life empty and joyless until they see the names of their wives and daughters in the *Gazette* among the presentations at a drawing-room or levee.

In the colonies, and especially in Canada, where there is so little in the local life to gratify the imagination, the court shines with a splendor which the distance only intensifies. To a certain class of Canadians, who enjoy more frequent opportunities than the inhabitants of the other great colonies of renewing or fortifying their love of the competition of English social life, and of the marks of success in it, the court, as the fountain of honor, apart from all political significance, is an object of almost fierce interest. In England itself the signs of social distinction are not so much prized. This kind of Canadian is, in fact, apt to be rather more of an Englishman than the Englishman himself in all these things. He imitates and cultivates English usages with a passion which takes no account of the restrictions of time or place. At a Canadian watering-place one may see corpulent men of sixty-five scuttling about in the knickerbockers in which English youth equip themselves for the moors and the mountains, reckless of their thin calves and great stomachs. They "dress for dinner" not with the feeling of the Englishman of the upper class, that it is a decorous and clean thing to do, but with the feeling which has been so often remarked in the British "cad," that it is a solemn religious rite, the practice of which raises a man into a higher and purer social atmosphere, and the omission of which would be a moral stain. It is "the thing" too in Canadian society, as in the American colony in Paris, to be much disgusted by the "low Americans" who invade the Dominion in summer; and to feel that even the swells of New York and Boston could achieve much improvement in their manners by faithful observation of the doings in the Toronto and Ottawa drawing-rooms.

As far as admiration of courts and a deep desire for court-life and a belief in the saving grace of contact with royalty can go, therefore, there are Canadians fully prepared for the establishment of a court "in their midst." The society of the province was, in fact, in an inflammable eagerness to kiss hands, and back out from the presence of royalty, and perform the various exercises pertaining to admission to court circles, and in a proper state of Jingo distrust of the wicked Czar and his minions—which in the Colonies is now one of the marks of gentility—when the magician, Lord Beaconsfield, determined to apply the match to it by sending out a real princess. In spite of his contempt for the "flat-nosed Franks," however, he can hardly have been prepared for the response which he elicited. He cannot have designed to make monarchy and royalty seem ridiculous, and yet the articles and addresses and ceremonies with which the new Governor-General and his wife have been received look as if the Minister had determined, before he died, to have the best laugh of his farcical career over the barbarians who have called him in to rule over them. A court is a very delicate thing, and a strong capacity for enjoying it does not of itself make good courtiers. In England the reasons which prevent a man's being received at court—such as active prosecution of the dry-goods business—are a thousand years old; in fact, they may be said to have come down from the ancient world along with the Roman

Law. They have, therefore, a certain natural fitness and force in the eyes of the natives of that country. That is, it seems to "stand to reason" that a trader should not go to court. Moreover, they can be enforced in England and still leave an abundant supply of spotless persons for the purposes of court society. The court-line is drawn along an existing and well-marked social division. In Canada this preparation for court gaieties does not exist. If the persons soiled by commerce were to be excluded from the Princess's presence, she would lead a lonely and dismal life and the court would be substantially a failure. If, on the other hand, the court is to be made up exclusively of rich traders, it will not only excite the fiercest jealousies and bitterness among those who are excluded, but it will be very difficult to provide a rule for passing on claims for presentation when once the line of official position is passed. But, it may be said, why not throw all restrictions aside and admit everybody, as at White House receptions? Nobody will ask this question who has mastered even the rudiments of royalty, and we shall not take the trouble of answering it fully. We are now discussing the question for the benefit of persons of some degree of knowledge. Suffice it to say that any laxity of practice at Ottawa would do a good deal of damage to the monarchical principle itself, which, as Mr. Bagehot has pointed out, owes much of its force and permanence even in England to its hold on the imagination. The Princess cannot go back to England after receiving Tom, Dick, and Harry in Canada without a certain loss of prestige both for herself and her house.

Not the least curious feature of the crisis is the interest the prospect of a Canadian court has excited in this country. Our newspapers know what they are about when they give whole pages to accounts of the voyage and the reception, including a history of the House of Argyll and a brief sketch of the feelings of Captain the Duke of Edinburgh, now on the Halifax Station, over his approaching meeting with his sister. They recognize the existence of a deep and abiding curiosity, at least among the women of our country, about all that relates to royalty and its doings, in spite of the labor expended for nearly a century by orators and editors in showing up the vanity and hollowness of monarchical distinctions. In fact, if the secrets of American hearts could be revealed, we fear it would be found that the material for about a million of each order of nobility, from dukes down, exists among us under quiet republican exteriors, and that if a court circle were set up among us, no earthly power could prevent its assuming unnatural and unmanageable proportions. A prince like the late Emperor Maximilian, whose purse was meagre but whose connection with a reigning house was unquestioned and close, might find worse ways of repairing his fortune than setting up an amateur court in some of the Atlantic cities and charging a moderate fee for presentation, and drawing the line judiciously so as to keep up the distinction without damaging his revenues. To prevent cutting remarks on the members of the circle, however, and too much ridicule of the whole enterprise, he would have to give the editors high places about his person, and provide offices for the reporters in his basement. If the scheme were well organized and did not attempt too much, its value in settling people's "position," and in giving the worthy their proper place without the prolonged struggles they now have sometimes to undergo, would be very great, and it would enable foreign students of our institutions to pursue successfully certain lines of enquiry into our manners and customs in which they are now too often baffled.

THE BEGINNING OF THE SESSION.

WASHINGTON, Dec. 9, 1878.

CONGRESS met last Monday with three months before it in which to transact a very large amount of business. The contrast between the temper in which it meets now and that which it displayed on meeting a year ago, or even at the close of the last session, is very marked. A year ago, although the party majorities in the two houses were very much the same as they are to-day, the Democrats were still flushed with a sense of triumph, derived from a recollection of their overwhelming majority in the previous House, and the heavy popular backing shown by the Presidential returns of 1876. The Senate was within easy grasp, and the complete possession of the Government seemed merely a question of two short years. The same causes which elated the Democrats also elated the inflationists, both of the silver and paper factions. The session opened with a tremendous onslaught upon the Resumption Act, accompanied with a demand for unlimited silver coinage, and the voting in both houses showed that we were apparently on the brink of repudiation. On the

other hand, the Republicans were clearly afraid of taking up any strong position on the currency question, and a good many of them showed signs even of going over to the enemy. Towards the end of the session they were given new cause for fears by the opening of the work of the Potter Committee, and by the Oregon election. The latter seemed one more indication of their rapidly-failing popular strength and the other was supposed to foreshadow a bold attack upon the Presidency itself. When Anderson's testimony was given and the Sherman letter produced, last summer, it is not too much to say that great consternation and tribulation were occasioned in the Republican camp. The newspapers tried to make little of the story, but it was hard work. Even as late as last July the future to Democratic eyes was full of hope and inspiration. In March they would be certain of the Senate, and with the Senate and House in their possession the President's hands would be tied, while if it should be discovered by the Potter Committee that he had committed any act which would justify such a proceeding, he might be impeached and removed. For, though the Senate would not be two-thirds Democratic, it would be full of Republican enemies of Mr. Hayes—Blaines and Conklings and Camerons and Howes—who would only be too glad of a chance to help oust the "usurper." Then, if the President could be got rid of, Sherman would have to go too; indeed, the case was stronger against Sherman than against Hayes; and Sherman once removed we should hear no more of resumption.

In five short months what a change has come over the scene! Congress comes back to resume its work a sadder and wiser body. There is still a Democratic majority; there is still a Potter Committee; the Senate will still be Democratic in March; the Dollar of the Fathers is in circulation, or at any rate has been coined, and the date for resumption has not yet arrived. But the Democratic majority is inert, the doings of the Potter Committee have ceased to attract attention, and there are no statesmen who take you by the arm and whisper strange things as to the probable effect of probable discoveries on the title of Mr. Hayes. Stranger than all, the inflationists have decided not to oppose resumption on the first of January.

All this has been accomplished by the fall elections and by the publication of the cipher despatches, and the result is that Congress comes together a dignified convention of statesmen, ready, if not to "rise above party," at any rate to discuss all questions upon their merits, and with a strong disinclination on both sides to go into any political excesses. Of course Congressmen are human, and now and then through the winter bursts of passionate eloquence may be expected on the subject of Southern outrages or the "gold-bugs," but they will not be likely to be more than sporadic and ineffectual. A quiet session is what everybody looks forward to, and if Congress pleases it can undoubtedly have a quiet as easily as a noisy session. But that it should be quiet is a startling proof of the insincerity of American politics. There is really something grotesquely hollow about the opinions and professions of gentlemen who in June are ready to "wipe the debt out as with a sponge," and who in December are perfectly willing to have resumption tried as "an experiment." The Democrats who last summer thought the testimony taken by the Potter Committee was strong enough to call for impeachment must think so still. The Republicans who thought that silver had been demonetized by the Wall Street "gold-sharps," and that without a silver currency, interconvertible with gold, the country would go to the dogs, must hold the same opinions now. Why do they not express them and go down fighting for them to the bitter end? The fact is, and it must be confessed, that Washington is not a place to find opinions (in the sense of settled beliefs) on any question. Opinions and settled beliefs are luxuries which "money-kings" and persons who are placed beyond the reach of the storms and mishaps of popular elections may indulge in; but they are beyond the reach of hard-working politicians elected for two years, and always in danger of losing their seats through the ever-changing opinions of their constituents. If Adam Smith and the *Federalist* could secure your re-election it would be very well to study them; but they cannot, and, worse than that, they may hinder it, for your constituency may find on examination that it does not like Adam Smith and the *Federalist*, and then if you are not in a position to throw Adam Smith and the *Federalist* overboard how are you going to stay in Congress? It is all very well to tell a man to be a statesman; but if you want him to be a statesman you ought to give him an office and a salary (or at any rate a salary) for life. In Washington, consequently, the man of fixed opinions is out of place, and the majority of successful politicians—i.e., those who have risen sufficiently high to get into either house of Congress—are so by skill not in moulding but in allowing themselves to be

moulded by public opinion. Hence any great change of public opinion outside is pretty sure to be reflected at once in the "Halls of Debate," and hence at the present moment it is difficult to know what has become of the silver-men or the paper-men or the Tilden men. They are all here; but they manifest a heartless indifference to the virtues of silver or greenbacks, and as for Mr. Hayes's title, they appear to have become almost capable of "condoning fraud."

Among the Republicans nothing is more noticeable than the subsidence of that rancor which a year ago made the radical wing of the party so bitter against Mr. Hayes. This is, of course, in part due to the fact that he has himself been "studying the will of the people" on Southern questions. Although it would be difficult to find any distinct indication of a change of policy in Mr. Hayes's message, so far as a definite plan of action is concerned, he has, so to speak, made a sentimental concession to the "Stalwarts," and is ready to admit that "the negro must not be deserted," and that the Republican party in the South "must be upheld." This, if I am not very much mistaken, is all that the Radicals care about. They do not want any definite policy, but what they most strenuously object to is that when they are "firing the Northern heart," and waving the "bloody shirt," and denouncing "outrages," the head of their own party should stand calmly by, enquiring what all this disturbance is about, and recommending them to let the South manage its own affairs. The message, then, may be taken as an indication of that *rapprochement* between the two wings of the party which is clearly going on all over the country, and which has already borne fruits in the conciliation of the anti-Conkling faction in New York, and in the disappearance of the "Young Republicans" in Massachusetts. There is no doubt that the party has become a unit again. The President's "policy" may be said to be a success or a failure according to the point of view from which it is regarded. As an attempt to remove the Southern question from practical politics it is a success, for whatever uses may be made of it as a stalking-horse, all attempts at actual government of the South from Washington are over. As an attempt to build up a party, or to carry out a thorough, radical, and effective reform of the civil service, it is a failure. No new party has been brought into existence, and the civil service is not reformed root and branch. Nevertheless, even here the Administration is entitled to a great deal of praise. Although it has not changed the system on which the civil service is managed, and although it has made many bad appointments, the whole tone of the service, as it is seen at headquarters in Washington, is enormously improved since Grant's time. Every one who was here in those days must remember the shocking stories of corruption and intrigue which filled the air; stories which were so frequently when sifted only too well borne out by the facts. This is all over, and the gain is very great. In the management of the departments there may be abuses in the way of assessments of salaries, and a rotten system of appointments and removals, but there is no peculation, no bribery, and no waste. The management is economical and honest. Compare, for instance, the administration of the Attorney-General's office under General Devens with what it was under George H. Williams, or the Navy Department under Mr. Thompson with the same bureau under Robeson. The difference is so radical and wide as to amount to a revolution.

To any one interested in politics as something more than a mere scramble for office the experiment now being tried here in municipal government is an interesting object of study. As you have explained in your columns, Washington is the only city in the United States, perhaps in the world, in which the traditions of the race with regard to city government have been thrown completely overboard, and the whole mediæval machinery of wards, and common councils, and aldermen, and local suffrage and legislation swept away. The government of Washington, a city of 125,000 or 150,000 inhabitants, has been handed over by Congress to a board of three commissioners, one of whom is an officer of the Army detailed for the purpose, and who has charge generally of everything that would come under the head of engineering or public works, paving, lighting, drainage, etc. This officer is responsible to no one but his military superiors, while the two other commissioners are appointed by the President and Senate. The citizens of Washington have no more to do with the selection of the board than the inhabitants of Fiji. The government is not periodically reinvigorated with new blood from either caucuses or primaries. In fact, the city would, if it was anywhere outside of America, be described by the patriot orator as groaning under a despotism; or, better still, under a military despotism. Here, in the very capital, in the citadel of liberty among the nations, have one hundred thousand citizens, for no crime of theirs, and without a hearing, been deprived of their birthright. The strangest part of the whole thing is,

however, that they seem to like it. There is no sound of remonstrance or objection, whether among the purse-proud owners of property or the hard-handed sons of toil, and the bolder among them even maintain that they secure better government by it. When you ask them what they mean by this, they will tell you that they mean that they get better streets, better sewers, and better police. And this seems to be the fact. Although during the continuance of the Shepherd régime immense things were done for Washington, and in fact Washington was converted from a half-grown town into a city, it has been found, as might have been expected, that it was done at a frightful cost, which now has to be paid for, and, more than this, that a great deal of it was not well done. The Shepherd pavements, for instance, are already beginning to give out here and there because they were originally laid badly. You know in New York what this means. It has been discovered, too, that asphaltum pavements of the best sort can be laid down by a military despotism at about half their cost under a free government: and such is the character of the Washington citizen, so accustomed has he become to luxury, that he says, as between asphaltum and liberty, for his part he prefers asphaltum. Again, the new government is a success as regards the general finances of the city, and it appears probable that in the course of five or six years, notwithstanding the waste of the past, and the taxation, which cannot be called light, there will be a surplus in the treasury. This too pleases the Washingtonians, who in their degradation do not like high taxes, even if they secure freedom. There is apparently no movement on foot for a change in the present method of governing the District, and no chance of its receiving any support were one started. If Mr. John Kelly still retains his interest in the municipal problem, it would be worth his while to pay a visit to Washington and see the new system in full operation.

Correspondence.

MUSIC IN LEIPZIG.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the very instructive account given of "The Wagner Performances in Leipzig," in No. 696 of the *Nation*, the writer says:

"To see the name of Wagner or Liszt on the programme of a Gewandhaus concert would be as extraordinary an event as the reading of a chapter from Schopenhauer at a Methodist prayer-meeting. But I am convinced that the num' er of converts to the modern school of music in Leipzig during the last three weeks amounts to many thousands."

Lest these words should leave a false impression on the minds of your readers as to the extent of "Leipzig conservatism in musical matters," allow me to state that the Gewandhaus concerts for the past two years have been devoted very largely to the modern school of music. Not only may the names of Wagner and Liszt be seen on the programmes for these two years (though seldom, it is true), but also the names of Volkmann, Jensen, Svendsen, Brahms, Scharwenka, Saint-Saëns, and others, of whom the three last-named conducted their compositions in person on several occasions. The famous "Ritt der Walküren" was performed at a Gewandhaus concert in January, 1877. It was not at the time very favorably received. Even if such a composition could be enjoyed thoroughly apart from the dramatic action to which it belongs, the concert-room of the Gewandhaus is much too small, notwithstanding its fine acoustic properties, to allow the piece its proper effect. Considerations like this would naturally prevent the name of Wagner from appearing very often on the Gewandhaus programmes, especially in a city where there is such ample opportunity for hearing the great composer's music in its legitimate home, the opera house. There are, it is true, among the frequenters of the Gewandhaus few of the class who think that all other music grows pale in the light of Wagner's operas, and that the only name worthy to be mentioned with Wagner is Beethoven. But it has been generally conceded in Leipzig for the past few years, by the large majority of those at all capable of judging Wagner's music, that he is the greatest man who has yet entered the field of musical drama. The crowded houses in 1871-2 at the Wagner operas given here were witness to this. Let me add that before the first performances here of "Rheingold" and "Walküre," which took place last spring, a large portion of the musical public had already become familiar with much of the Nibelung music, through the medium of concerts especially arranged for the purpose, at which in the beginning of the evening the different "Leitmotive" were played on the piano, and such explanations were made as

would enable the audience more readily to understand the composer's ideas.

I was much surprised at the criticism in the same article bestowed upon Frau Marie Wilt, who, not only in Leipzig and Berlin, but also in Vienna, where she was prima donna at the Hofburg Theater previous to her engagement here, is considered a very superior artist. She has in the upper register of the voice a power of crescendo and diminuendo and such beautiful pianissimo notes as are seldom heard. Her execution is faultless. No one could doubt this who heard her sing a few evenings since in Verdi's Requiem. Frau Wilt labors under the disadvantage of being a very corpulent woman, with a face quite unsympathetic, especially when she sings. This may partly account for the disappointment which most persons feel at her performance in the love-scene at the close of "Siegfried." But I believe it is generally yielded that her rendering of the more important and highly dramatic part which Brünnhilde plays in the "Götterdämmerung" is so excellent as to cause one entirely to forget the unfavorable impression produced by her first appearance. It would at least, if I may express my own opinion, free her from the charge of being "no sort of an actress."

W. S. W.

Linz, Nov. 25, 1878.

Notes.

MACMILLAN & CO. will publish a translation of Dr. Moritz Busch's "Bismarck and the Men about Him during the War with France," to be made by Mrs. Alexander Napier. More immediately they will bring out a new story by Mrs. Molesworth, called "Grandmother Dear," illustrated and bound from designs by Walter Crane. — In connection with T. & T. Clark of Edinburgh, Charles Scribner's Sons will begin at once the publication of a "Popular Commentary on the New Testament," with illustrations of a high order, and maps prepared under the supervision of Dr. Arnold Guyot. The editing will be performed mainly by members of the Anglo-American Bible-Revision Committees, under the general oversight of Dr. Philip Schaff. The work will fill four volumes royal 8vo. Scribner & Co. promise in January a new hymn and tune-book, called "Spiritual Songs," selected and arranged by the Rev. Dr. Chas. S. Robinson. — Henry Holt & Co. will publish this month, in two volumes, "Roscher's Political Economy," translated by J. J. Lalor, and enlarged by the author with chapters on Paper Money, International Trade, and the Protective System. They will also publish Thomas Hardy's "Return of the Native," — "Famous Stories," by De Quincey, Hawthorne, Theodore Winthrop, Tom Hood, and others, with illustrations by well-known American artists, is announced by R. Worthington. — Homer Lee & Co. have in press an autobiographical work, "The Colored Cadet at West Point," by Henry Ossian Flipper, now Second Lieutenant Tenth United States Cavalry. We have received two interesting steel portraits of the author which will accompany the book. Lieutenant Flipper gave during his career at West Point and has given since proofs of modest worth and good sense which we hope this publication will do nothing but confirm. — The latest official publication connected with the Centennial Exhibition is that of "Grounds and Buildings," edited by Dorsey Gardner, Assistant-Secretary of the United States Centennial Commission (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.). It is a plain statistical account of the disposition of the grounds and of the several structures, illustrated by maps, plans, and perspective views. One might have expected, in so elegantly printed a work, photographic rather than ordinary wood-cut views. — That admirable translator from Byron and Shakspere, Otto Gildemeister, has been lately engaged on Ariosto's "Orlando Furioso," with his usual success. A portion of his version appeared in Hillebrand's *Italia* (iv.), and a further portion from the second and fourth cantos, the episode of Bradamante and Atlas, is given in the *Magazin für die Literatur des Auslandes* for November 16. — *Polybillion* for November concludes a list of French works which have been translated into Spanish during the past five years (useful knowledge for the students of either language), and begins a bibliography of Christmas Carols, edited by Gustave Brunet from the papers of the late J. M. Qu'ard. — Karl H. Hermann, of Halle, has just published his "Bibliotheca Germanica," a catalogue of all the works on the Old-German language and literature and related subjects that have appeared in Germany between 1830 and the end of 1875. — The first paper in *Unsere Zeit* for November 1 is a long account of "William Cullen Bryant, the North American Poet and Politician," by Rudolf Doebe. It contains numerous extracts from his poems in German verse. — Charavay,

in his *L'Amateur d'autographies*, offers for sale some interesting letters of La Pérouse, the celebrated navigator, written whilst serving in this country during the Revolutionary War. The prices demanded are so low that we trust that they may be secured for one of our historical societies' archives. At a recent sale of autographs in Paris the highest price, 2,600 francs, was paid for one of Amerigo Vespucci's. A Rabelais brought 1,000; Racine, 810; Tasso and Cervantes, each 600 francs.

— A new edition of "Uncle Tom's Cabin," after the lapse of more than a quarter of a century since its first appearance in book form, may almost be called a literary event in itself. Can the generation now on the stage read it with the same interest and the same emotions as did their fathers and mothers? Assuredly not. To them it is a romance of the far past, to be believed, perhaps, but not realized, and which must derive nearly all its effectiveness from its intrinsic merits, like any other historical novel, whether English or foreign. These merits, while they cannot revive the immense popularity of the work, will ensure its being read by whoever begins it; and no one of common sensibility will be likely to finish it with dry eyes. The portrayal of the institution of slavery fell so far below the reality that the time can never come when its pathos will seem that of hyperbole or of strained rhetoric; nor will the world ever lack this example of the uses and of the genius of fiction—that one can read the "Key to Uncle Tom's Cabin," we will not say unmoved, but without tears. Mrs. Stowe's contemporaries will find something pathetic, in a joyous sense, in the introduction to the present edition, in which she impersonally narrates the origin of her story and the success it achieved, and gives in their own words the flattering testimonials of many distinguished foreigners. The hopes they expressed that the work would aid powerfully in the overthrow of slavery long ago became prophecies; but only those who have had experience of the events which achieved this seemingly remote conversion can enter into the feelings with which Mrs. Stowe's retrospect was penned. And how many years must pass before in the Southern half of this country "Uncle Tom's Cabin" will receive the homage due to it for its moderation, its benevolence, and its literary art! Besides the introduction, this edition is distinguished by a bibliography of editions of "Uncle Tom" in the British Museum, embracing twenty languages, to which two others are to be added, as Mrs. Stowe's correspondents inform her—the Hindu and the Siamese. The publishers (Houghton, Osgood & Co.) have brought out the volume in fine attire, but the English illustrations a better judgment would have suppressed.

— A recent number of Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrifl* (second Heft of vol. xl.) contains an appreciative review, by Prof. von Holst, of Mr. Herbert B. Adams's valuable monograph, read before the Maryland Historical Society, "Maryland's influence in founding a National Commonwealth." He remarks that "the author has given evidence not only of such industry and critical judgment, but also of so calm and correct political insight, that he will be gladly welcomed by all scholars who are at work in the field of American history as a fellow-laborer of much promise." The review, of four pages, gives in a few words the summary of Mr. Adams's most important conclusions. "It had remained unnoticed until the present time," he says, "that this little State was the first to enter the lists for the Union, and especially that by this act it placed itself from the very beginning and with full consciousness upon the national right and the national interest, in opposition to the *particularist* claims and interests of the individual States." This refers to the fact given on page 27 of Mr. Adams's work: the proposition made in Congress by Maryland, Oct. 15, 1777, "exactly one month before the Articles of Confederation were proposed to the legislatures for ratification," giving to Congress the sole right to fix the western boundaries of the States, and to dispose of the land beyond the boundary. No State but Maryland voted for the proposition; but it was a most fruitful germ, for, as Mr. Adams says, "in this motion was suggested that idea of political expansion under the sovereign control of Congress which ultimately prevailed, and constituted, upon grounds of necessity, a truly national Republic." At the close the reviewer remarks that there is only one point in the essay to which he has decided objections—the use of the term "*de facto* sovereign." "There is an entire series of the most important rights of sovereignty which it [the Confederation] is as far from having exercised in point of fact as from having possessed in point of law." But by whom were these rights exercised, and under what authority?

— George Henry Lewes died in London, Sunday, December 1, at the age of sixty-one, very suddenly as it would appear. Although he has of late years been somewhat overshadowed by the greatness of his second

wife, known to the world as George Eliot, he was a man of varied attainments and extraordinary powers, and did valuable work in many departments of thought. He began his career as clerk in a large foreign house, but he soon abandoned money-making for medicine, which he studied both in England and Germany, taking especial interest in physiology. Proficient in many languages, he fixed at length upon literature as a profession, and literature with him included everything worth thinking or writing. From the age of twenty-one until his death his pen was constantly in his hand, and everywhere he was a critic. A mere list of his contributions to the leading reviews would far exceed our space. In 1849 he founded the *Leader*, and in 1851 the *Fortnightly Review*. He wrote three or four novels, now hardly known, although one or two of them still figure in the collections of Harpers and Tauchnitz. Both as critic and dramatist he devoted special attention to the stage. In 1850 "The Noble Heart," a five-act tragedy of his, was produced at the London Olympic, and it was soon followed by nearly a dozen other plays, more or less taken from the French, and more or less successful, under the *nom de plume* of "Slingsby Lawrence." Amongst them was an English version of Balzac's fine play "Mercadet," called by Mr. Lewes "A Game of Speculation," which Charles Mathews used to act very successfully. Before this Mr. Lewes had published an admirable little history of the Spanish classical drama, and in 1875 his "Actors and the Art of Acting" was printed, and soon after reprinted here, a collection of criticisms mostly upon actors whom he had seen and studied, and perhaps the best work in English on the actor's art. He wrote several biographies, amongst them one of Robespierre, and one which is probably Mr. Lewes's best-known work, that of Goethe, of which a third and final edition was published in London in one volume in 1875. It is an admirable example of what the biography of a great author should be. Ample, but not too extended, exact and appreciative, written in an easy style, full of apt illustrations and references to other literatures, this Life of Goethe is interesting even to those who know nothing of him save his name, and leaves them with the desire to end their ignorance at once. In Germany it is cited as authority, and in France it has achieved the honor of plagiarism. Mr. Lewes's work on the "Physiology of Common Life" was for many years the best popular work on the subject, and is not yet quite antiquated, notwithstanding the great strides physiology has taken in the last few years.

—It was in philosophy, however, that he attempted most. He brought to its study a mind colored by his scientific training, and he made it his great object to carry into metaphysics the methods of modern physical research, seeking to solve some of the abstrusest problems of thought by the positive analysis and negative synthesis of his materialism, for materialist he certainly was. His first important philosophical work, his "Biographical History," was published in 1845. Eight years later appeared his work on Comte's "Philosophy of the Sciences," no mere translation, but a re-examination of the subject in the light Comte had thrown upon it. He never followed the Frenchman in his dogmatic vagaries, and later in life he passed more completely out of his power, though, like Mr. Mill, he was always considerably influenced by Comte's methods of analysis. His most elaborate philosophical work, on the "Problems of Life and Mind" (both volumes of which were fully reviewed in the *Nation*), was an attempt to extend to a portion of metaphysics methods which both the positive and idealist schools had held inapplicable to it, and he considered that he had redeemed to accurate thought much that had been too hastily given over to speculation. And in a measure he did do so, but his work was injured by the extent to which he carried his German notion of unifying all relative terms; and his death left his work unfinished, with hardly the preliminary excavations completed for the foundation of the new creed he proposed to erect. His ability was so well recognized that he was an acknowledged leader of his school in England. His religious views were very radical, and very negative in their character. Their principal interest comes from the profound influence he exerted over the great novelist. The bold faith that satisfied the vigorous brain of her husband, while it compelled her acquiescence, never satisfied her woman's soul. Perhaps, too, the fading of her romantic sentiment, and her growing habit of didactic philosophizing, are to be attributed in part to her husband's influence; but it would be very unfair to place upon him the burden of her faults without also crediting him with something of the development of her virtues. Without saying anything as to the other aspects of their relation, we must admit that he surrounded her sensitive genius with an atmosphere in which it thrived steadily and grew to be England's chiefest artistic glory; and perhaps he may be better known for this in the years

to come than for his own original work. Yet he has not only given to the world works upon dramatic art and organic science, upon history and metaphysics, which, by common consent, rank among the best of their kind, but he poured out for nearly two-score years a flood of essays that were never thrown aside unread. His style was clear and often eloquent, though he gained the clearness sometimes at the expense of completeness, and his eloquence was not the compulsion of passion. His insight was keen, if it did not fathom the profoundest depths. His critical taste was keen and delicate, but it was the intellectual more than the aesthetic side that appealed to him. Extraordinarily prolific as he was as a writer, he was never dull or weak or commonplace, never obscure or cowardly or false. He was a characteristic man of our time, and literature loses much by his death.

—High up in the top of one of the side semi-circular pavilions of the magnificent Opéra of Paris, six or seven stories above the level of the surrounding streets, are the ample apartments set aside for the archives and the library. After the daring visitor has entered the stage door and mounted the seemingly interminable steps, he comes out into long corridors lined with presses in which are stored the many precious musical MSS. of the Opéra acquired during its two hundred years of existence; in glazed cases on the top of these presses are exposed certain of the more curious autographs. The musical MSS., and all the music in fact, printed or engraved, are under the care of M. Théodore de Lajarte, and he it is who has prepared the "Catalogue de la Bibliothèque Musicale du Théâtre de l'Opéra," noticed by us on a former occasion and now at last completed by the recent publication of the seventh and eighth parts. It forms two stout volumes of over seven hundred pages in all, made doubly useful by an index of forty pages to all works brought out at the Opéra. The seventh part, covering the time from the first performance of the "Prophète," in 1849, to the middle of 1876, is in many respects the most interesting. In it we are reminded that M. Émile Augier once wrote an opera-libretto, "Sapho," for which M. Gounod composed the music, and it was a failure; we note that M. Offenbach in 1860 wrote the music of a ballet, "Le Papillon," for which the celebrated dancer, Marie Taglioni, composed the dancing, and it too was a failure. Apropos of ballets it is with some surprise that the name of Théophile Gautier is seen so often as the author of ballet-librettos; his beautiful "Giselle," for which Adolphe Adam composed the music, is an excellent example of the skill with which, catching at a suggestion of Hoffmann's, he could put a fanciful and fantastic subject on the stage. Among the opera-librettists the name of M. Got, the great comedian of the Comédie-Française, is twice to be found. M. Lajarte's mention of Wagner's "Tannhäuser," which had three noisy performances in 1861, shows that the French are beginning to get over their extreme dislike for the German composer's work: "We ought to confess that his score contains beauties of the first rank in the midst of ridiculous insanities. The summary justice inflicted on it by the Parisian public is, consequently, a fault we shall not try to excuse." To the seven parts before the last are prefixed portraits, etched by M. de Rat, and at times a little thin and hard, of the seven typical musicians of the two centuries of French opera—Lully, Campra, Rameau, Gluck, Spontini, Rossini, and Meyerbeer. The eighth part has an etching, also by M. de Rat, of the ample oval room, at the top of the pavilion, in which is now ranged the dramatic, operatic, terpsichorean, and generally theatrical library of the Opéra, under the care of M. Nuitter, the archivist. This collection is perhaps the best theatrical library in Paris, and it is rapidly growing. Both English and German drama and dramatic biography are well represented in it, and it is generally more cosmopolitan than French collections usually are. M. Nuitter himself is our authority for saying that, as soon as he has filled a few more vacancies, he proposes issuing a catalogue, which will certainly be one of the most important in its class. We are also informed that he is desirous of receiving all American publications in his line, and we happen to know by experience that both M. Nuitter and M. Lajarte are cordial in their welcome to Americans.

—The monastery of Monte Casino has received at the Paris Exposition a gold medal for the arrangement, method, and materials of the higher instruction, and a bronze medal for specimens of printing. There has probably been no time since its foundation by St. Benedict in 529 that it has not been noted for its devotion to education and literature. Exempted by the Italian Government from the secularization which befel the other religious establishments of Italy, its monks, now reduced to twenty, are unwearied in their efforts to sustain the centuries-old reputation of their order. In addition to their educational work, in 1865 they edited and printed by their own unassisted labor a fac-simile of the

splendid manuscript of Dante. Since then they have printed two volumes of a catalogue of the manuscripts contained in their library, which is one of the richest in the department of charters and archives in the world. In the excellence of the typography and the beauty of the numerous fac-similes of illuminated manuscripts these volumes fall but little below the best productions of the French press.

BATEMAN ON DARWINISM.*

DR. BATEMAN'S argument against Darwinism is based upon a fallacy which is quite commonly shared by those who have failed to comprehend the doctrine of evolution. This is the fallacy of supposing that the Darwinian theory can be overthrown simply by insisting upon the obvious fact that the intelligence and acquirements of man are enormously—almost incomensurably—greater than the intelligence and acquirements of the highest apes. As urged in the case of language, Dr. Bateman's argument is not original with him, as he seems to suppose; it has already been urged by Max Müller, a writer far more distinguished for brilliancy of expression than for profundity of thought. In substance it consists of three propositions: "1. That articulate speech is a distinctive attribute of man, and that the ape and lower animals do not possess a trace of it. 2. That articulate speech is a universal attribute of man, that all races have a language, or the capacity of acquiring it. 3. The immateriality of the faculty of speech." It is perhaps hardly correct to call this last point a "proposition," nor is it easy to determine precisely its purport or its relevance. We are told farther on that although "a certain normal and healthy state of cerebral tissue is necessary for the exterior manifestation of the faculty of speech," it by no means follows that speech is located in a particular portion of the brain, or is the "result of a certain definite molecular condition of the cerebral organ." Of course it does not follow; but the conclusion, however interesting to phrenologists and materialists, is irrelevant to the discussion of the Darwinian theory or to that of the origin of language. In such enquiries all that any one needs to know is that the faculty of speech implies, among other things, the presence of a brain, and whether this "faculty" is to be called "immaterial" or not is quite beside the question.

Our author's argumentation, it will be rightly inferred, is more or less rambling in character. Returning to the two propositions which really make up his argument, it is an obvious criticism that every sensible Darwinian will concede them both without a moment's hesitation. There is not the slightest evidence of the existence of a race of men destitute of articulate speech; and if apes or any other animals do possess the slightest trace of such an acquisition, it may safely be neglected on the principle of *de minimis non curat lex*. It is only Dr. Bateman's imaginary Darwinian who finds it difficult to admit these plain facts. The actual supporters of this "dangerous heresy" have never gone out of their way to detect an historical substratum for Reynard or Æsop, or to hunt from its obscurity the Leibnitzian story of the Latin-speaking dog; there are some of them, we fear, who would even, on general grounds, cast discredit on the story of Balasam. But if this be really the Darwinian state of mind, then Dr. Bateman's work is plainly a case of *ignoratio elenchi*, or what is otherwise called "barking up the wrong tree."

As regards the process, psychological and physiological, by which the faculty of articulate speech was acquired by mankind, no thorough explanation has yet been offered, either upon the Darwinian or upon any other theory. The so-called "bow-wow" or onomatopoeic theory is no doubt correct, so far as it goes, as a description of facts which have attended the acquisition of speech; but it hardly goes to the root of the matter. The power of enunciating sounds so as to communicate ideas and feelings is certainly an art, as much as the later-acquired powers of writing or drawing. For the original acquisition of such an art two conditions were requisite—the physiological capacity of the vocal organs for producing articulate sounds, and the psychological capacity of abstraction implied in the conception of a sign or symbol. There must also have been required—as underlying the last-named capacity—the possession of a certain amount of mental flexibility, or inventiveness, or capability of framing new combinations of ideas. This sort of mental flexibility is found among animals in man alone, and in his case it is the accompaniment, and probably the result, of an exceptionally long period of infancy. The significance of infancy, psychologically, is that it is a period during which a great number of all-important nervous combinations are formed after birth under the influence of outward circumstances which

slightly vary from generation to generation. Where there is no infancy all the most important nervous combinations are established before birth, and under the unmodified influence of the powerful conservative tendency of heredity. Where there is an infancy, many important nervous combinations are not formed until after birth, and the strictly conservative tendency of heredity is liable to be modified by the fact that the experience of the offspring amid environing circumstances is not likely to be precisely the same as that of the parent. The prolongation of infancy, therefore, increases the opportunities for the production of a mental type more plastic than that which is witnessed in the lower animals; it paves the way for inventiveness and for progress. It is, furthermore, the increased variety of experience resulting from this increased mental plasticity that leads to the power of abstraction and generalization—the power of marking out and isolating in thought the element that is common to different groups of phenomena.

Now, in the first employment of articulated words by inchoate man, who had hitherto only grunted or howled, the main point to be interpreted psychologically is the inventive turn of mind which could establish an association between a number of vocal sounds and a corresponding number of objects, and which could appreciate the utility of such an association in facilitating concerted action with one's fellow-creatures; though, as to the last point, the utility would be so enormous that the maintenance of the device, when once conceived, could never be in doubt. In the origination of language it is but the first costly step that requires consideration; but this step obviously involved no superhuman mystery. It was but an instance—though the greatest of all in its consequences—of that general psychical plasticity which characterizes the only animal which begins life with a considerable proportion of its nervous combinations undetermined.

It is not pretended that such considerations solve the problem of the origin of speech. They nevertheless go far toward putting it into its proper position, and indicating the class of enquiries with which it must be grouped if it is to be treated in that broad philosophical way which can alone connect its solution with the fortunes of the Darwinian theory. The existence of language is not, as Max Müller's *dicta* imply, a fact in the universe that is isolated or *sui generis* in being incapable of scientific explanation. Immense as the fabric of human speech has grown to be, it is undoubtedly based on sundry acts of discovery or invention—not necessarily very conspicuous at the outset—among primeval semi-human savages. The inventive acts which led to the systematic use of vocal sounds for the interchange of ideas, like the inventive acts which resulted in bows and arrows and in cookery, are to be regarded simply as instances of the general increase in psychical plasticity which has been the fundamental fact in the genesis of man intellectually. In other words, the existence of language is a fact no more wonderful than the general superiority of human over simian intelligence; and when it shall have been shown how the rigid mind of an ape might acquire plasticity, the problem of the origin of language, along with many other problems, will have been, *ipso facto*, more than half solved.

A great step in this direction was taken by Mr. Wallace, when he pointed out that when variations in intelligence have become, on the whole, more useful to a race of animals than variations in physical constitution, then natural selection must seize upon the former to the relative neglect of the latter. This conclusion follows inevitably from the theory of natural selection as conceived by Mr. Darwin; and it further follows, with equal cogency, that when this point is reached an entirely new chapter is opened in the history of the evolution of life. A race which maintains itself by psychical variations can never, by natural selection, give rise to a race specifically different from itself in a zoological sense. It may go on adding increments to its intelligence until it evolves Newtons and Beethovens, while its physical structure will undergo but slight and secondary modifications. Obviously the first beginning of such a race of creatures, though but a slight affair zoologically, was, in the history of the world, an event quite incomparable in importance with any other instance of specific genesis that ever occurred. It constituted a new departure, so to speak, not inferior in value to the first beginning of organic life. From Mr. Spencer's researches into the organization of correspondences in the nervous system it follows that the general increase of intelligence cannot be carried much farther than it has reached in the average higher mammalia without necessitating the genesis of infancy. The amount of work to be done by the developing nervous system of the offspring, in reproducing the various combinations achieved by the parental nervous system, becomes so considerable that it cannot all be performed before birth. A considerable and increasing number of combina-

* *Darwinism Tested by Language*. By Frederic Bateman, M.D. With a Preface by E. M. Goulburn, D.D., Dean of Norwich. London. New York: Scribner & Welford. 12mo, pp. xxi. 224.

tions have to be adjusted after birth; and thus arise the phenomena of infancy. Among mammalia the point at which this change becomes observable lies between the true monkeys and the man-like apes. The orang-outang is unable to walk until a month old, and its period of babyhood lasts considerably longer.

The establishment of infancy is the most important among the series of events which resulted in the genesis of man. For, on the one hand, the prolongation of this period of immaturity had for its direct effect the liberation of intelligence from the shackles of rigid conservatism by which the unchecked influence of heredity had hitherto confined it. On the other hand, as its indirect effect, the prolongation of the period of helplessness served to inaugurate social life by establishing the family, and thus prepared the way for the development of the moral sense. It is by following out this line of enquiry that we shall elucidate the question of the causes of man's enormous intellectual superiority over his nearest zoological congeners. Meanwhile, and until further light shall have been thrown upon such incidental questions as the inventiveness displayed in the origin of language, the Darwinian is in nowise debarred, by any logical necessity of his position, from fully recognizing the fact of this enormous superiority. Writers like Dr. Bateman argue as if they supposed Darwinians to be in the habit of depicting the human race as a parcel of naked, howling troglodytes. They "point with pride" to Parthenons and Iliads, and ask us to produce from his African forests some gorilla who can perform the like. These worthy critics should first try to grasp the meaning of the contrast, that while zoologically man presents differences from the higher catarrhine apes that are barely of generic value, on the other hand the psychological difference is so great as, in Mr. Mivart's emphatic language, to transcend the difference between an ape and a blade of grass. After duly reflecting on this, with the aid to be derived from Mr. Wallace's suggestion above cited, they will perhaps be able to comprehend how it is that the Darwinian, without ignoring the immensity of this difference, seeks, nevertheless, by working hypotheses to bring it out of the region of barren mystery into that of scientific interpretation. When they have once got this through their heads such trash as Dr. Bateman's will no longer get published.

A MODEL HISTORY.*

THE author of this work says in his preface that "if there be room for one more history of the United States for schools, it must differ in character from those now before the public." We do not always know ourselves. If there be a weak point in this book, it is that it does not differ quite enough from those now before the public, as a few extracts from the early pages will show :

"They [the Indians] were not equal to Europeans in bodily strength, but they had wonderful endurance. They were very light of foot, and their best racers could run eighty miles a day. They used skins as clothing, which they prepared by smoking instead of tanning. When white men came they obtained blankets, which they decorated with feathers, beads, shells, and trinkets. In summer they wore but little clothing, and the early settlers said it was hard to fight with an Indian, because there was 'nothing to hold on by except his hair, and not much of that.'"
—*Model History*, page 19.

[It will be observed that these last five words are here given as a part of the remark quoted, though they do not belong to it, but are Higginson's addition.]

"They made stone axes and arrow-heads, and these are often found in the ground to this day. Iron was unknown to them. Their most ingenious inventions were the birch canoe and the snow-shoe. The canoes were sometimes thirty feet long, and would carry a dozen Indians. An Indian could travel forty miles a day upon snow-shoes, and could overtake the deer and moose, whose pointed hoofs cut through the snow. These shoes are still much used in Canada."
—*Model History*, page 20.

"Their [the Indians'] success was mainly owing to their silent approaches, patient watching, and cunning stratagems. They thought it honorable to kill an unarmed enemy, and praised treachery and deceit. To fight a pitched battle was evidence of

"They made stone axes and arrow-heads, and these are often found in the ground to this day. But the most ingenious inventions of the Indians were the snow-shoe and the birch canoe. The largest of these canoes were thirty feet long, and would carry ten or twelve Indians. An Indian could travel forty miles a day upon snow-shoes, and could easily overtake the deer and moose, whose pointed hoofs cut through the crust. The birch canoe and the snow-shoe are still much in use, not only among Indians, but among white men in the northern parts of the United States and in Canada."
—*Higginson*, pp. 16-8.

"Much of their skill consisted in these silent approaches and in surprises and stratagems, and long and patient watching. They attached no shame to killing an unarmed enemy, or to private deceit and treachery, though to their public treaties

* "The Model History. A Brief Account of the American People; for Schools. By Edward Taylor, A.M." Chicago: George Sherwood & Co.

rashness or want of skill. They were very brave, but saw no shame in running away when there was no chance of success."
—*Model History*, page 21.

"The Spaniards went for gold and precious stones; the Portuguese to capture Indians and reduce them to slavery; the French for the sake of fishing; and the English and Dutch to find a passage to India. Even the learned supposed for a long time that the new lands were a series of islands called 'Florida,' 'Hispaniola,' and 'America.' The geographers thought China and Japan lay just west of these islands, and they eagerly sought a passage thence."
—*Model History*, page 35.

"The Spaniards wished to own all the lands they had seen or sailed near. So did the English. So did the French. So did the Dutch. But none of them were willing to stay there and keep possession."
—*Model History*, page 35.

"Within the church, the old men sat in one place, the young men in another, and the children in another. The boys sat on the stairs or in the gallery, guarded by an elder, who carried a long light rod with a hare's foot on one end and a hare's tail on the other. If a woman went to sleep, he touched her on the forehead with the hare's tail; if a boy nodded, he received a rap with the other end. We can imagine the rod was often needed, for the service was from three to six hours in length, the sexton turning the hour-glass on the pulpit at the end of every hour." There were no organs, choirs, or hymns, but the music consisted of singing by the entire congregation from a poetical version of the Psalms. The whole number of tunes did not exceed ten, and few congregations could sing more than five."
—*Model History*, pp. 67, 68.

[It will be observed that some sentences of this passage are in quotation marks. It is difficult to see why, as the coincidence is not more complete than in many other passages.]

"But on great occasions, and on the Sabbath, the young men wore gold and silver buttons and showy belts; and the young women silkens hoods, lace handkerchiefs, and embroidered caps. All persons were required by law to dress within their means. Alice Flynt was accused of wearing a silk hood; but the complaint was dropped when she showed that she was worth a thousand dollars! Jonas Fairbanks was arrested for wearing 'great boots,' but he was acquitted of the crime for want of sufficient evidence."
—*Model History*, page 72.

"People in all stations made their morning and evening meal of mush and milk. The standard dinner was of pork and beans or beef and peas. Tea and coffee were not yet used, but home-made beer and cider were largely taken as drinks. . . . Bread was commonly made of rye and corn meal, rather than of flour. . . . There were few amusements; dancing and the theatre were not tolerated; and no one was allowed to carry cards or dice. . . . The standard of morality was very high."
—*Model History*, pp. 72-3.

* "We should find the young men, on public occasions, wearing showy belts, gold and silver buttons, and great boots rolled over at the top. We should find the young women wearing plain and homespun clothing when about their work, but appearing on Sundays in silk hoods, lace handkerchiefs, slashed sleeves, and embroidered caps. But the law required that they should dress according to their means. Alice Flynt was accused of wearing a silk hood; but when she proved before court that she was worth two hundred pounds in money the complaint was dropped. Jonas Fairbanks, about the same time, was prosecuted for wearing 'great boots'; but the evidence was not sufficient to convict him, and he was happily acquitted."
—*Higginson*, page 75.

"People of all stations made their morning and evening meal of boiled corn-meal and milk, or of pork and beans, or pork and peas. Tea and coffee were not yet introduced; but home-made beer and cider were largely employed. Bread was commonly made of rye and Indian, rather than of flour. There were few amusements; dancing and the theatre were prohibited; musical instruments were rare; and no one was allowed even to possess cards or dice. In their desire to promote virtue, the Puritans, no doubt, were too austere in their way of living; yet the standard of morality among them was certainly very high."
—*Higginson*, p. 85.

But it is needless to carry these parallel passages beyond the first quarter of Mr. Taylor's book. A celebrated Englishman once defined an independent statesman as a statesman not to be depended on; and this work may be said to be "a model history" in the sense of being a history based on a model, and adhering to it pretty closely.

Record of a Girlhood. By Frances Anne Kemble. (London: Bentley, 1878).—Of this work Americans have had the foretaste, under another title, in the *Atlantic Monthly*. To the series which there appeared, a good deal has now been added; by no means enough, however, to console the reader for his regret that the author should not have prolonged her chronicle and carried it into her riper years. The book is so charming, so entertaining, so stamped with the impress of a strong, remarkable, various nature, that we feel almost tormented in being treated to a view only of the youthful phases of the character. Like most of the novels that we read, or don't read, these volumes are the history of a young lady's entrance into life. Mrs. Kemble's young lady is a very brilliant and charming one, and our only complaint is that we part com-

they were always faithful. They were desperately brave, and yet they saw no disgrace in running away when there was no chance of success."
—*Higginson*, page 28.

"The Spaniards generally went for gold; the Portuguese for slaves; and the French and English for the sake of fishing. But the more learned people—the geographers and those that made the maps—now thought that these new lands were not a part of India, but were a series of islands called 'Cuba,' 'Florida,' 'America,' and so on; and they expected to find among these islands a passage that would lead to China and Japan."
—*Higginson*, page 47.

"The Spaniards wished to own all they had explored; so did the French; so did the English; but nobody liked very well to stay there and keep possession."
—*Higginson*, page 59.

"In those days the old men sat together in one place in the church, the young men in another, the young women in another. The boys all sat on the pulpit-stairs and gallery-stairs, guarded by constables. Each of these constables had a wand, with a hare's foot on one end and a hare's tail on the other. These were to keep people awake. If any woman went to sleep, the constable touched her on the forehead with the hare's tail; but if a small boy nodded, he was rapped with the other end, not quite so gently. No doubt the wand was often used, for the services were sometimes three and four hours long, the sexton turning the hour-glass before the minister at the end of every hour. The only music consisted of staging by the congregation from a metrical portion of the Psalms, called the 'Bay Psalm Book.' The whole number of tunes known to the people did not exceed ten, and few congregations could go beyond five."
—*Higginson*, pp. 73-6.

"We should find the young men, on public occasions, wearing showy belts, gold and silver buttons, and great boots rolled over at the top. We should find the young women wearing plain and homespun clothing when about their work, but appearing on Sundays in silk hoods, lace handkerchiefs, slashed sleeves, and embroidered caps. But the law required that they should dress according to their means. Alice Flynt was accused of wearing a silk hood; but when she proved before court that she was worth two hundred pounds in money the complaint was dropped. Jonas Fairbanks, about the same time, was prosecuted for wearing 'great boots'; but the evidence was not sufficient to convict him, and he was happily acquitted."
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"People of all stations made their morning and evening meal of boiled corn-meal and milk, or of pork and beans, or pork and peas. Tea and coffee were not yet introduced; but home-made beer and cider were largely employed. Bread was commonly made of rye and Indian, rather than of flour. There were few amusements; dancing and the theatre were prohibited; musical instruments were rare; and no one was allowed even to possess cards or dice. In their desire to promote virtue, the Puritans, no doubt, were too austere in their way of living; yet the standard of morality among them was certainly very high."
—*Higginson*, p. 85.

pany with her too soon. It is a pity that her easy, natural, forcible descriptive powers, her vivid memory of detail, her spontaneous pathos and humor, should not have exercised themselves upon a larger experience. What we have here, however, is excellent reading, and as the author is always tolerably definite in her characterizations of people she has met, discretion perhaps justified her in confining herself to subjects not strictly contemporaneous. Mrs. Kemble's part in these volumes is admirably done ; she is naturally a writer, she has a style of her own which is full of those felicities of expression that indicate the literary sense. But as regards the publication of her work she has evidently been irresponsible, and the publishers might have done better. It has received the very minimum of editing (by which we do not mean retouching or redistributing, but simply the material conversion of a MS. into a book). There are no headings to the pages or to the chapters, and anything in the nature of a table of contents or an index is conspicuous by its absence. The work has been brought out, in short, like a three-volume novel. Its substance, of course, is very theatrical, but by no means exclusively so. On the contrary, nothing is more striking than the fact that Fanny Kemble, in the midst of her youthful triumph, led a life entirely independent of the stage, and had personal and intellectual interests that were quite distinct from her art. Has any young actress, before or since, ever written such letters as those addressed to Miss H. S., of which a large part of these volumes is composed ? As an actress, Miss Fanny Kemble had many a confidant upon the stage ; but she had the good fortune also to have one off it, to whom she poured out a thousand daily impressions and opinions, emotions and reflections of character. Taken together, these things make a very remarkable portrait—a portrait doubly remarkable when we remember that this original, positive, interrogative, reflective, generous, cultivated young girl, interested in books, in questions, in public matters, in art and nature and philosophy, was at the same time a young lady of the footlights and pursuing in this situation an extraordinarily brilliant career.

The serious side of the young actress's mind and the complete absence of any touch of Bohemianism in her personal situation make of the charming heroine of these pages a very original figure in the history of the stage. To produce such a figure certain influences were needed which are not likely soon to recur. Mrs. Kemble had the good fortune to issue from a remarkable race—a race each of whose members appears to have had some striking or charming gift, were it only the personal beauty which was their most universal characteristic. She summed up in herself most of their salient qualities—she came into the world with a great hereditary impetus. And then the English theatre at that time was a very different affair from now ; it enjoyed a different sort of consideration. Actors and actresses took themselves seriously, and the public took them in the same fashion. The two great play-houses, Drury Lane and Covent Garden, enjoyed, in virtue of their "patents," a monopoly of the Shakspearian and classical drama, and to this end they were able to concentrate all the available talent and experience of the time. It is probable, therefore, that at these theatres the plays of the old repertory were acted with a general perfection of which, in our own time, we can form no idea. Charles Kemble was great as *Mercutio* ; who in our own day is great as *Mercutio* ? Who, even, can deliver the enchanting poetry of the part with tolerable spirit and grace ? Mrs. Kemble's reminiscences bring back to us this happier time, as well as a great many other agreeable things ; though it can hardly be said that they make it seem nearer. It seems not fifty but a hundred years ago that she renewed the popularity of Otway and Massinger, of *Mrs. Beverley* and *Lady Townley*. All that is the old, the very old, world, and we have travelled very fast since then.

We may add that this record is particularly interesting from what one may call a psychological point of view, on account of the singular anomaly it points out. Mrs. Kemble, during the years of her early histrionic triumphs, took no pleasure in the exercise of her genius. She went upon the stage from extrinsic considerations, and she never overcame a strong aversion to it. The talent, and the sort of activity that the talent involved, remained mutually unsympathetic. Given, in Mrs. Kemble's case, the remarkable proportions of the talent, the fact appears to be without precedent, though, if we are not mistaken, something akin to it is pointed out in the Memoirs of Macready. There have been people who could not act by many degrees so well as Mrs. Kemble who have had an incorrigible passion for the footlights ; but we doubt whether there has been any one who, possessing so strongly the dramatic instinct, has had so little taste for the stage. The contradiction is interesting, and leads one to ask whether it takes a distinctly inferior mind to content itself with the dramatic profession. The thing is possible, though one hesi-

tates to affirm it. We venture to say no more than that it is probable Miss Fanny Kemble would have been a more contented and ambitious actress, a more complete and business-like artist, if she had not been so generally intelligent and accomplished a young lady. She would have been happier if she could have been more "professional." But this contradiction is only a detail in the portrait of a very interesting character.

Canada under the Administration of Lord Dufferin. By George Stewart, jr. (Toronto: Rose-Belford Publishing Company. 1878.)—This handsome volume of nearly seven hundred pages gives a full view of the administration of Lord Dufferin from his arrival in 1872 to his departure in the present year, and includes nearly all the speeches which he delivered on occasions festive or political during his term of office. When he came to Canada the Confederation was in its incipient stage ; its extreme western and eastern members were restive under the new order of things, and one of them openly threatened secession. Conflicts of parties, races, and creeds agitated the new nationality. Ugly questions had come up touching the honor and honesty of its highest functionaries, and the Dominion Ministry was attacked with charges of gross corruption. Never was there a happier choice than that which, at this troubled time, sent Lord Dufferin to represent his sovereign in Canada. The spirit of his administration may be described as one of dignified conciliation. Placed above the conflicting elements, he was in a position to moderate and reconcile them—a task for which his character and talents remarkably fitted him. It is hardly too much to say that his popularity was universal. He became a Canadian among Canadians, and entered even into the national amusements with a sympathetic zest that was entirely genuine. He was the host or the guest of his subjects with equal kindness and equal grace ; and his innumerable speeches, in English and French, and sometimes, on academic occasions, in Greek or Latin, were all suited to the occasion and the audience, and yet were marked as much by sincerity as by tact. Sometimes, no doubt, he tinged his words with rose color, but it was because his eyes turned instinctively to the bright side. He knew well how to uphold the vice-regal dignity ; but he felt himself the head of a free people, and the royal prerogative was never an occasion of offence in his hands. If the old thirteen colonies had been governed in the same spirit the American Revolution would have been long postponed, and would have been bloodless. The Canadians have learned to love the crown in the person of the Viceroy.

One of the ablest of Lord Dufferin's speeches was that delivered at Victoria in 1876, when he had the hard task of conciliating the population of British Columbia, exasperated by the non-fulfilment of the terms on which they had agreed to join the Confederation. This and the other chief troubles of his Administration rose out of causes anterior to his arrival in Canada. The premier, Sir John Macdonald, always lavish of promises, had pledged his Government to build a railway to the Pacific within a short specified time. The promise could not be kept. Then a compromise was made on terms recommended by Lord Carnarvon. These terms also proved difficult of fulfilment, and a party in the aggrieved province was ready for secession. In connection with this state of things an incident occurred, trifling enough in itself, but serving to illustrate the readiness and tact as well as other qualities of the Viceroy. He was expected to pass in procession under a number of arches which had been raised over the main street of Victoria. When the procession was about to move he was told that one of these arches bore the secession motto, "Carnarvon Terms or Separation." He replied : "Send the committee to me." When they appeared he said with a smile : "Gentlemen, I will go under your arch on one condition : I merely ask you to change one letter in your motto—turn the S into R : make it 'Carnarvon Terms or Reparation' and I will pass under it gladly." The committee declined, and to their great vexation the procession was ordered to pass down a side street.

It was this projected railway to the Pacific that gave occasion to those charges against the chief minister of the Dominion which caused such bitter party strife in Canada. Under the difficulties and embarrassments in which this affair placed Lord Dufferin there may have been a question whether he did not adhere too closely to the technicalities of his position, but there could be none whatever as to the conscientious anxiety with which he set himself to fulfil its duties. If the course of his eminently successful administration gave little opportunity to the highest qualities of statesmanship, it exacted often and in a high degree the exercise of judgment, firmness, and address.

Mr. Stewart has done his work exceedingly well. The ceremonial and

festive occasions which are a conspicuous feature of the book are described with good taste. Political questions and events are presented clearly and faithfully, while the speeches of Lord Dufferin, of which all the more important are given in full, have the advantage of his own supervision.

Art in the House; Historical, Critical, and Aesthetic Studies on the Decoration and Furnishing of the Dwelling. By Jacob Von Falke, Vice-Director of the Austrian Museum of Art and Industry at Vienna. Authorized American edition translated from the third German edition. Edited with notes by Charles C. Perkins, M.A. Illustrated by Chromolithographs, Albertotypes, and Typographic Etchings. (Boston: L. Prang & Co. Large 4to, pp. xxvii. 356. 1878.)—This large book is divided under a few principal headings into parts which may be described and considered separately. There are ten chapters of the original work and an Editor's Preface, which constitutes another chapter by itself. Taking first this last-named division it appears from it that, while Dr. Von Falke thought best to begin his work with a description of "the Greco-Roman house" (for which, by the way, he gives his reasons in his "Introduction"), Mr. Perkins thought it right to preface that beginning with such an account as twenty-five pages would contain of the Egyptian and the Assyrian dwelling. This chapter, or preface, is very interesting, although, in the natural wish to treat of many parts of the subject, of dress and festivities, jewelry and decorative fabrics, pottery and painted ceilings, the chance to point out what is most suitable for modern study has perhaps been lost. The illustrations to this part of the book are seventeen pictures in the text, looking like not very delicate wood-cuts, but probably "typographic etchings," which certainly are not etchings at all; and with these two large plates—one a chromo-lithograph of an Egyptian interior, accredited to M. Viollet-le-Duc, and apparently enlarged with added color and details from the plate in that author's "Histoire de l'Habitation Humaine," though it is not impossible that a large lithograph of the subject is to be found among his excellent lecture-illustrations prepared for the *École Centrale d'Architecture*.

With chapter i. begins the work proper, with the examination and analysis of the "Greco-Roman" house and its furnishing, and the life led within it. This chapter is fully illustrated, and gives, perhaps, as good an account of the Pompeian interior and of Roman domestic life as could be got into its forty-five pages, so long as it was thought necessary to reproduce the old anecdotes and to indulge in the old comments. And, no doubt, a more rigidly analytical examination of the subject would have been thought unreadable. At the same time, when we consider the unequalled fitness and beauty of the utensils of classical times, and the simplicity and obvious nature of the principles of design which guided their makers; when, furthermore, it would be so easy to talk plainly, and to discriminate at once between what was excellent and of permanent value (of value, therefore, to us), and what was mere fashion and Roman pomposity, it does seem a pity that one more parlor-table picture-book be offered us, full of true things, of course, but not likely to fix the attention of those who most need to study, nor to impart either accurate knowledge of what has been nor a clear perception of what should be.

The second chapter deals with the mediæval house, and here again it appears that the picturesque exteriors of mediæval buildings, and the necessities of defence in the homes of the nobles, occupy space in the text that might better have been devoted to a more consecutive and minute consideration of what the people of the Middle Ages did best in the way of floor and wall decoration, movable and stationary wood-work, and the use of textile fabrics as curtains, floor-cloths, and wall-coverings. We have a pleasant essay, and, to the careful reader of it who is otherwise uninformed on the subject, it may be of value. Our complaint is merely that, while this same general knowledge is easily accessible elsewhere, the student does not know where to go for more carefully arranged and classified information, except to expensive and extensive works not always within his reach, nor known to him.

Two more chapters are devoted, the one to the house of the sixteenth century and the other to the house of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and then begins the discussion of the general topic of modern house-decoration, which is divided into five chapters. This latter part of the book is much more valuable than that which has been spoken of before. References to the past are so frequent, necessarily so frequent, as to suggest the reducing of the previous historical chapters to additional illustrative matter for these chapters, which treat of "The Floor and the Wall" and "Furniture." The point of view is necessarily German, the recent German fashions give the key-note for many remarks hardly in-

telligible here, and a comical desire to find fault with what is French will not be excused here so readily as in Vienna. These are slight failings in what is very generally just and sound as criticism, and, if not very suggestive, at least good as a check on some evil tendencies of the day.

The book winds up with a chapter on "Woman's Aesthetic Mission," which contains a discussion of what the women of a family can do to beautify its home. It seems to us that no discussion on that subject is of much value which does not take account of the one great disturbing element, the evil influence which prevents women from doing anything great to help in the artistic movement—their life-long subjection to the rule of fashion. Changing fashions affect men as well, and so far as to prevent any good thing coming out of even the best workshops; but still there are men who are indifferent to *la mode*. Are there any women who can say as much as that of themselves?

Pleasant Spots around Oxford. By Alfred Rimmer. Illustrated. (Cassell, Petter & Galpin. 1878.)—Mr. Rimmer, as readers of his "Ancient Streets and Homesteads of England" are aware, is an amiable pedestrian, of architectural tastes and probable training, a gentle antiquarian, a lover of the picturesque, fairly skilful with his pencil—in short, possessed of all the traits that make companionship in the open air delightful, but lacking those which go to the telling of a story or the making of a book. What an interminable sentence, for instance, and barely intelligible, is this on p. 3 of the present volume:

"Now, Isaac Walton could not only write this at three-score years, but nearly a quarter of a century after this he showed how keen his love of nature was, in a letter he wrote to his friend Mr. Cotton, on sending him a copy of 'irregular stanzas,' as he terms them, upon retirement, that had been originally given him by his friend, and which speak in quaint old rhyme of 'valleys and mountains,' 'groves and fountains,' but he says that if this offends Mr. Cotton—though he has only added it as a preface to his work, that his friend's excellence may be better known, 'and any reader that is blessed with a generous soul may love you the better'—yet he declares that if he is at all aggrieved with waking up their old pleasant days, he will, 'so far commute for my offence, that though I be more than a hundred miles from you, and in the eighty-third year of my age, yet I will forget both, and next month begin a pilgrimage to beg your pardon, for I would die in your favor.'"

Mr. Rimmer's rambling disorder is still characteristic of him, and so are the frequent repetitions of thought and phrase. We turn the leaf of pp. 9 and 10 when we read: "Like all other colleges, it [Magdalen] has a list of notable men among its scholars," and before p. 10 is ended we are told that "Like all the colleges, this can boast of a long list of distinguished names, from Wolsey's downwards." So, p. 13: "Little is known of the history or origin of Iffley Church. John Britton, a very painstaking authority—almost a final one, some would say—declares that, after much research, he cannot arrive at any conclusion regarding the founder"; and, p. 14: "Britton, in speaking of Iffley, mentions some curious circumstances. He cannot, as he says, after much care and research, discover its true origin." Of English landscape, p. 22: "There is a pearly grey that belongs to it alone"; p. 74: "The Berkshire hills . . . have the pearly grey look that cannot be seen out of England . . . the grey pearly tint pertains to England." And for a final (though not the only remaining) example: "Abingdon is an extremely pleasant town, and a favorite holiday resort of Oxonians" (p. 23). "Abingdon is a favorite resort of Oxford men" (p. 33).

These extracts show how incorrigible our author is, from want of method, but they do not fairly describe his book. Discursiveness is not *per se* a fault, and Mr. Rimmer has much pleasant gossip, historical, biographical, architectural, piscatorial, entomological, etc. He tells how to make ink and how not to clean fish. By several allusions he shows that he has been in America, but we should doubt if he ever left Canada. Blenheim receives more attention in these pages than any other topic. The book is beautifully made, with a holiday aspect.

Recollections of Writers. By Charles and Mary Cowden Clarke. With letters of Charles Lamb, Leigh Hunt, Douglas Jerrold, and Charles Dickens; and a preface by Mary Cowden Clarke. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.)—This little volume contains much agreeable reading, though the reader who glances over it hastily may be daunted at a first inspection. Mrs. Clarke is capable of a formidable amount of sentimental expression, and sentimental expression is not to the taste of the reader of the present day. In her preface she is not content with referring to herself and her deceased husband as the "author-couple," to him as "one of the wedded pair," and again as "her lost other self," but gravely declares

that "Charles and Mary Cowden Clarke may with truth be held in tender remembrance by their readers as among the happiest of married lovers, for more than forty-eight years writing together, reading together, working together, enjoying together the perfection of loving literary consociation." After such a preface it might be expected that the style of the "Recollections" themselves would not be altogether severe; and they are unquestionably marred by a florid luxuriance which is ill-adapted to the writing of reminiscences. When we are told of Coleridge that "here he spread the sail-broad vans of his wonderful imagination, and soared away with an eagle-flight, and with an eagle-eye too, compassing the effulgence of his great argument, ever and anon stooping within my own sparrow's range, and then glancing away again, and careering through the trackless fields of ethereal metaphysics," we cannot feel positively certain that we understand the peculiar traits of Coleridge's method of conversation much better than we did before. Nevertheless, the general tone of the book is not as inflated as this, and here and there occur little passages of description of well-known people which make up for a good deal of rhetoric. For instance, at page 45 there is an account of Leigh Hunt's manner in conversation and story-telling that wants nothing for vividness and point. So, too, the recollections of Charles Lamb and his sister Mary are particularly good. Lamb was intimate with the Clares (it is to his acquaintance with the musician Vincent Novello, the father of Mrs. Clarke, that we owe the "Chapter on Ears"), and here we have him in his most eccentric and familiar moods—amusing his friends with a story of a walking match between himself and a dog, in which he tires the dog out, and leaves the animal under a hedge exhausted; opening his street-door to admit a stray donkey to the enjoyment of a strip of grass in his garden; condoling with a shop-keeper, of whom his sister is making purchases, on the falling off of trade; declaring that his habit was to give away gifts, part with presents, and sell keepsakes, and asserting that he always called his sister Moll before the servants, Mary when with friends, and Maria when alone with her. But the best thing relating to Lamb in the book is the musical letter (p. 165) to Novello on the marriage of his daughter, containing a "Serenata for two voices." This is as good as anything in the "Essays," and would have warranted the publication of the book had it contained nothing else worth preservation. The musical composition is supposed to contain an "Air" for the "first voice," for which Lamb furnishes the following inspired lines:

"The listening Muses all around her
Think 'tis Phoebus' strain they hear,
And Cupid, drawing near to wound her,
Drops his bow and stands to hear."

Apropos of which the author gives the following directions to the musical father of the bride:

"Your exquisite taste will prevent your falling into the error of Purcell, who at a passage similar to that in my first air—

" 'Drops his bow and stands to hear,'—

directed the first violin thus:

" 'Here the first violin must drop his bow.'

But besides the absurdity of disarming his principal performer of so necessary an adjunct to his instrument, in such an emphatic part of the composition too, which must have had a droll effect at the time, all such minutiae of adaptation are at this time of day very properly exploded, and Jackson of Exeter very fairly ranks them under the head of puns."

The chapters on Dickens, Douglas Jerrold, and Leigh Hunt are all very good and contain a great deal of correspondence worth preservation. With regard to Jerrold's repartees, the following remarks are very interesting. As to whether they are more or less than fair is a question about which there might be two opinions:

"Jerrold would perceive the germ of a retort before you had well begun to form your sentence, and would bring it forth in full blossom the instant you had done speaking. He had a way of looking straight in the face of one to whom he dealt a repartee, and with an expression of eye that seemed to ask appreciation of the point of the thing he was going to say, thus depriving it of personality or ill-nature. It was as if he called upon its object to enjoy it with him, rather than to resent its sharpness. When an acquaintance came up to him and said: 'Why, Jerrold, I hear you said my nose was like the ace of clubs!' Jerrold returned: 'No, I didn't; but now I look at it I see it is very like.' The question of the actual resemblance was far less present to his mind than the neatness of his own turn upon the complainant."

This is an explanation such as a man fond of being witty at other people's expense might be glad to have his friends make for him (and it should be said that the reminiscences in this volume are nothing if not friendly). It might, by the way, be worth the while of the next person who undertakes to define the difference between wit and

humor to institute a comparison between the sayings and writings of Charles Lamb and Douglas Jerrold, one confessedly a humorist and the other a wit. Those who believe the difference to be fundamental could not have a better case in point. One of the stories told here of Jerrold is that in which the publisher of *Bentley's Miscellany* tells him of his doubts as to the name of the magazine, adding that he "thought at one time of calling it *The Wits' Miscellany*." Jerrold says in reply: "Well, but you needn't have gone to the other extremity." This is certainly no more unsparing than Charles Lamb's saying to Burney, when playing cards: "Martin, if dirt were trumps, what hands you would hold!" But one is distinctly wit, and the other as distinctly humor. We must leave the analysis to be made, however, by others.

L'Art. Tome xiv. (Paris : A. Ballue ; New York : J. W. Bouton.)

—The illustrated journals charged to prepare notices of art-work at the Exposition must feel themselves at a disadvantage, one would think, as compared with mere literary journals; both have to summarize their old opinions, expressed when the contributions were first brought out, whether at the Salon, the Royal Academy, or where not; but whereas the printed reports of the literary journal can be abridged, or trimmed, or shaken up together at the convenience of the writer, for the new occasion, the artistic reports, in the form of illustrations, cannot be used over again. This would be an excuse for any seeming triviality in the illustrations of the Exposition by *L'Art*; but we do not find that any excuse is particularly needed. It gives us etchings, in the amplitude of its folio page, of such striking contributions as Bonnat's portrait of Don Carlos; Bertrand's "Virginia"; Bernier's "January in Brittany"; Doré's mammoth vase, "La Vigne"; a great Erard piano, whose exterior, thanks to the style of decoration, is quite frankly a cabinet of pictures; and Mme. Henriette Brown's "Coptic Poet." By the last artist there is also the "Portrait of Mme. P.," represented in a large, fine wood-cut, the whole treatment amounting to an instance and demonstration of the beautiful family reverence of the French for sheltered old age. This more than maternal figure, who seems to be patronizing a regiment of deeply-impressed grandchildren, who is wrapped in lace and not suffered to lose either glasses or handkerchief or wedding-ring or châtelaine, whom decrepit age endows with the surer position and authority, is certainly at the greatest possible extreme from the burial alive of Tahiti, and is a fairly selected standard of the refinement of civilization among the French. Mme. Brown's portrait, as we observed, is copied in wood-cut; and there are other full-page illustrations of the Exposition on boxwood, such as Pagliano's "Examining the Legacy," and Pasini's "Hawking in Syria," of which the latter at least (as well as such Salon copies as Guillon's "Evening" and Loir's "Puteaux") goes to show that wood-engraving may better repeat the melting gradations of oil, and better deliver the full velvety impasto of printer's ink, than either etching or line.

The Exposition criticisms are written by Véron, Viollet-le-Duc, A. de Champeaux, E. Soldi, E. St.-Raymond, T. Chasrel, A. Pougin, Adolphe Piat, and Charles Tardieu; they range in style from the professional rigor of Viollet-le-Duc and the official suavity of Véron to the practised ease and studio-familiarity of Tardieu. Altogether, the Exposition finds this wide-eyed chronicler of art-news in a state of preparedness, and the staff seems to have been full-handed enough to take it up not as an interruption, but as an occasion. The editor continues with spirit and wit his Parthian enmity towards the retiring figure of M. de Chennavières, the superseded Minister of Fine Arts, introducing large etchings from Ziem and Dupré, not so much for those painters' sake as to plant remorse in the bosom of the official who neglected to represent them in the Champ de Mars. M. Piat continues his strictures on the large and pompous catalogue, instancing the United States department, where the 165 actual numbers are reduced to 156 (still in this peccant third edition), and where an ungallant printer has been allowed to change the sex of every lady exhibiting, for which he commiserates by name Miss Cassatt, Miss Dodson, Miss Gardiner, Mrs. Greatorex, Miss Odenheimer, and Miss Tompkins. He might have added that our best engraver, Marsh, a small, unwarlike man, is given a bellicose aspect as "Mars." Another graceful piece of championship towards American art, in a different department, occurs in the Salon notice, where the Venetian scenes of one of our most promising painters, Mr. W. G. Bunce, are very warmly and feelingly praised as "of surprising delicacy and depth." As for the Salon, it naturally, the season considered, shares attention with the Exposition in volume xiv. It is illustrated by the pens of MM. Véron, De Baudot, and L. Ménard in the course of whose articles occur numerous fac-similes of drawings by the contributors themselves, a vigorous and demonstrable style of copy-work

as compared with the smooth but necessarily false wood-cuts of old time. Large etchings of Salon pictures are those from "L'Accouchée" of Duez, the "Magdalen" of Henner, and a lady's portrait by Flameng. The two last are remarkable. Henner's "Magdalen" is a surprise to the eyesight, imposing on the view with a deceptive imitation of the aspects of human flesh, its softness, firmness, elasticity, and weight, and the warm vitality which stirs it by means of the circulation : it is, in short, a good definition of the term *morbidezza*. The portrait by F. Fleming, etched by the skilled hand of Léopold Fleming, is a hard, careful imitation of the famous portraits by Ingres. The subject-model is reduced to its essentials, almost in the generalizing way of an Egyptian statue ; the face, seen exactly in front, so that just as much of one ear-lobe is given as of the other, seems—in this inexorable reproduction of its lowered black eyes and ivory skin—like a type of that penetrating Gaulish character which can never sympathize with the Saxon character; and which is fit to be either the prioress of a school of Druidesses, or the Countess Zicka of a Russian embassy, or the lady of a Paris counter, or the hostess of a salon, but which both lacks too much and has too much ever to learn the English word "home."

To conclude our notice, the present volume of *L'Art* bears honorable testimony to the generous zeal of its founders in setting on foot two important enterprises : one is the Museum of Decorative Art, in the Pavilion of Flora, first proposed in *L'Art* in August, 1876 ; the other is the Prize of Florence, founded by itself, maintaining a sculptor for two years in Florence, and just awarded to M. Beylard. To these may perhaps be added its generous support of the caricaturist Daumier, whom it has brought into prominence with pen and pencil, and whose pension, doubtless partly from this publicity, has been raised from 1,200 to 2,400 francs. These benefits, in addition to the grand prize invented by *L'Art* and awarded to Corot, form a handsome record of the public spirit shown by the journal during its comparatively short existence. As to the advance or decline of the journal in enterprise and merit, while we cannot say that it has improved of late, or even kept up the pace it held some time back, we can well bear testimony to its advanced position among modern periodicals of its kind.

German Classics, for American Students. Goethe's "Faust." Part I. Edited by J. M. Hart. (New York : G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878.)—This is the fourth volume of the series. The first was Goethe's "Hermann und Dorothea," the second Schiller's "Piccolomini," the third Goethe's "Prose." The first volume was open to a good deal of criticism ; the second was a great improvement in its notes ; the third was excellent, and this one leaves hardly anything to be wished for. The first part of "Faust" is not read much in our colleges, to say nothing of Part II. The reason is, "Faust" needs very careful and judicious editing, and this it has not had hitherto. Neither teacher nor scholar has had the means to interpret and appreciate "Faust" ; but we are getting here a series with which only Dr. Buehheim's in England, published by Macmillan, can compete.

Prof. Hart's introduction is very appropriate, and, considering the extent of Faust literature, it is to his credit that he did not make it longer than it is, and has crowded within about twenty-five pages the best and latest results of the investigations on the subject, down to Grimm's lectures on Goethe, and Dünzter's commentary (third edition), published only last year. This introduction, we venture to assert, will attract every reader of "Faust" outside of the narrow circle of students. More than that, it ought to increase the number of Faust readers.

The text is Von Loeper's, from Hempel's German classics, and the best yet prepared. The continuous marginal numbering is a happy thought of the editor's. No German ever thought of it, and yet what can be more convenient in the classroom or out of it for citation ? Two changes in spelling have been introduced, which are decided improvements. "Todt" is printed "tot," as it used to be and ought to be now. The two spellings "wohl" and "wol" the editor has made serve a good purpose, viz. : to distinguish meanings. When the word means "well," he prints "wohl" : when it means "indeed, truly, perhaps," he prints "wol." Though this distinction is not made by Germans, it would be an aid even to them, and certainly will be of great service to the foreigner, who finds much trouble in rendering the force of this adverb. The German "Dehnungs-h" is such an absurd letter that if any excuse can be found for retaining it the distinction here made certainly is one. We wish Mr. Hart had dropped the *h* after *t* all through this volume, as many novelists do.

The notes are as excellent as the introduction. Of course grammatical references and explanations, which are missed so much in "Hermann

und Dorothea," no reader need expect to find. Any one who needs them in "Faust" had better read Grimm's *Mährchen*. But archaisms, colloquialisms, certain licenses of speech and obscure allusions, receive full attention. The brief introductory remarks to each new scene are no small aids to "Orientierung." The reader of "Faust" is dazzled by the diversity and contrast of scenes and characters, and these hints as to what may be expected are exceedingly welcome.

Thanatopsis. By William Cullen Bryant. (New York : G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878.)—The charm of "Thanatopsis" is as strong now as when it first became known to the world. Editions of it in all sorts of forms may be looked for to succeed one another in the market for small gift-books. This one, carefully printed on very heavy paper, and accompanied by wood-cuts (designed and engraved by W. J. Linton, with acknowledged indebtedness to David Scott, William Blake, and Isaac Taylor), with a pretty cover in brown and gold, will do as well as another. But the illustrations are so far inferior to what one expects of the well-known artist whose name is announced as their author that it seems there must be some unapparent difficulty in the way, some break in the chain of communication between the designer's mind and the disappointed beholder. The selection of quaint and weird compositions from the works of Scott and Blake has proved unfortunate, as might indeed have been anticipated, for the modifying of such out-of-the-way designs as these must generally fail. Given an art which is only redeemed from the charge of offensive oddity by a transcendental power within it, and any alteration of its productions tends to spoil them, the subtle element which makes their only value flying off, and nothing but the affectation, the want of simplicity, the rugged ugliness remaining. There is a pleasant sense of the twinkling of leaves in the cut bearing the inscription "Resolved to Earth again," and the little tail-piece at the close of the volume is graceful and pretty. There are evidences of a feeling for beauty of design in black and white, of great skill in the technical part of wood engraving, and of a certain facility in drawing ; but, in spite of the readiness we may feel to find good in the book, the general result is feeble. It has to be relegated to the list of illustrated books of which no positive criticism is possible : a holiday picture-book and nothing more.

The Rag Fair and other Reveries. By L. Clarkson, author of "Violet" and "Gathering of the Lilies." With illustrations by the Author. (Philadelphia : F. W. Robinson & Co. 1879.)—This is larger and more showy than most of the holiday books of the present year. It contains about forty quarto-sized leaves of thick paper printed on one side, many of the pages having text and designs mingled together, and printed on a gray tint. The opening lines of the first and longest poem may serve as a specimen of the whole :

"I have read somewhere of a marvellous 'Rag Fair'
For Spiritual Garments, to be found
In some far, unknown region, on the bound
Of this angel-forsaken Eden, where
Our fall hath shamed our souls from standing bare
Before the god of Self, wise in their sin ;
And so, for decency, we clothe them in
Vestments of Earth which time fliches away
And keeps in hiding till some better day."

Perhaps worse passages than that might be selected. The verses called "Hades," being in simpler metre, may be less bad. The designs match the verses in being boundless in their scope, lofty in their aim, and absolutely *nil* in result. Nothing feebler is to be found away from the illustrated titles of popular songs : and this feebleness is employed in representing the mysteries and in dealing with the most solemn thoughts of life and of death. In most of the books of the holiday season there is something interesting and clever in the illustrations ; it is worth while to compare one with another, and carefully, even the slighter and more ephemeral of them. But such comparison can only result in placing this book, considered as a body of art, in the lowest of all classes—that of the poor and pretentious.

A Hand-book of Nursing for Family and General Use. (Philadelphia : J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879. 12mo, pp. 266.)—This is a serviceable manual, published under direction of the Connecticut Training School for Nurses at New Haven. It comprises three parts ; the first, on medical and surgical nursing, describes the more general duties of the nurse in the sick-room, with notes on the special features in the management of the fevers, of pneumonia, and of several of the more common diseases ; the seventh chapter, in particular, on disinfection and communicable diseases, shows that the anonymous author is acquainted with the latest researches upon zymosis. The second part is a very full and lucid

series of "Directions for Monthly Nursing." The third is a brief résumé of the modern scientific doctrine respecting "Family Hygiene." The book is written in a singularly clear and direct style. Its fault is one which is almost inseparable from books of practical hygiene, namely, that the multiplication of rules declared vitally important—often, indeed, actually so—must prove almost intimidating to the nurse who has not an education in medicine. That will be, however, the defect of the education rather than of the book, which will serve a good purpose among both professional and amateur nurses.

La Tragédie Grecque. Par E. Ad. Chaignet. (Paris : Didier & Cie ; New York : F. W. Christern, 1877. 12mo, pp. xli. 372.)—M. Chaignet's book occupies intermediate ground between the text-book and the purely literary essay. As was to be expected from a professor at Poitiers and a correspondent of the Institute, what he undertakes to do he does well. He traces logically and lucidly the rise of the Greek drama, describes the Greek theatre and discusses the origin and use of the chorus—ground which has been preoccupied in English by Donaldson's 'Theatre of the Greeks,' but the difference in treatment and some new matter make the present volume a valuable auxiliary to that work. It contains three distinct divisions: 1. A history of Greek Tragedy, especially at Athens ; 2. Chapters on Greek Tragedy in general, and its dramaturgy ; 3. An interesting analysis of three typical characters—the Clytemnestra of *Æschylus*, the Antigone of Sophocles, and the Phædra of Euripides—which shows a keen and thoughtful mind of considerable range and freedom and a larger acquaintance with foreign drama than one might expect. It is worth while to note that M. Chaignet finds the Phèdre of Racine more pagan than the Phædra of Euripides. "Racine," he says, "is in art a pagan : Port Royal was not in error : if one wishes for Christian heroes it is in Corneille that they must be sought" (p. 358). It is interesting to observe the evidence he affords of the growth of the Shakspere cult in France. Some time ago M. Paul Laeroix declared that Molière was at least the equal of Shakspere, but many of his colleagues have already taken a more just view. Indeed one member of the Academy, M. Mezières, owes his elevation, if we mistake not, mainly to his studies of Shakspere and the Elizabethan writers. M. Chaignet cites Shakspere again and again to illustrate the great tragedy he is discussing, by contrasting the situations and characters. He finds, for example, somewhat fancifully and superficially we cannot help thinking, an analogy between the first scenes of "Hamlet" and the "Agamemnon," and compares the character of *Clytemnestra* at the end of the latter play with the character of *Macbeth* after he has ascended the throne. The utility of the book is increased by a chronological table of Greek tragedy, both in years B.C. and by Olympiads, and by a full index.

Children's Books.—"Kidnapping in the Pacific" (Routledge) will not enhance Mr. W. H. G. Kingston's reputation as a story-teller. In fact, the book has scarcely more title to be called a story than the returns of a Parliamentary inquest. It is instructive, no doubt, but it has neither plot nor action, and Boas Ringdon, the retired kidnapper, who describes the horrors of his late business, and even supplies most of the moralizing on his own infamy, is a poor disguise for a humanitarian statistical tract, based on the reports of H. M. cruisers in the South Seas. The tale is a dismal one, and no one will offer it to a child with a view to giving pleasure.

We are not altogether sure of the moral of "Angelo, the Circus Boy," by Frank Sewall (Philadelphia: Lippincott). At first we thought it was going to be the dangers of country life; afterwards it seemed to be: Abandon your mother at the point of death, run away and join a circus, with the encouragement of your future brother-in-law, and you will marry his long-lost sister and prosper. But it is not quite that, nor is it quite the moral of Dickens's "Hard Times." The circus is on the whole painted black enough to deter youthful readers from seeking ease or fame or a pure life in the ring; and, with a few exceptions, the story may be commended as well written, dramatic, and wholesome, and not violently improbable. Master Fred Caroline may be grudged the easy success accorded his coarse smartness, and the hero, Robbie Wildmay, will by good judges be thought incapable of having said at the age of fourteen or fifteen: "I have the legal right to apply to any court for protection against abuse, and to demand dissolution of the compact which binds me here."

The sombreness of "Edward Garrett's" "Magic Flower-pot," and

Other Stories" (Cassell, Petter & Galpin) prevents our recommending the book to happy households. The authoress has a favorite way of making her characters "found dead" the next morning, and when that has been tried three times, a fourth victim is left to die on a doorstep. The mania for moralizing has seldom been more strikingly exemplified than in "The Last of the Corans," which is built upon the old story of the waylaid traveller who puts the highwayman off his guard by pretending to see a confederate behind him. In the present case the squire kills his young grandson, who was trying his courage. Great stress is laid on the lie by which the former saved himself, as he supposed, but nothing is said of the lie acted by the counterfeit highwayman, and visited with a just penalty. The opening story, the "Magic Flower-pot," is skilful and effective, but a fine vestibule does not make a fine house.

Pictures from real life rather than stories compose the little volume by Mary Esther Miller called "Brother Ben, and the Bird Summer" (Boston : Congregational Publishing Society). The scene in both narratives is the valley of the Connecticut near Northampton, and there are some excellent descriptions of country pleasures and excitement in that favored part of the world. The "Bird Summer" aims to stimulate young readers to "name all the birds without a gun," and the instruction conveyed is pleasantly mingled with apt poetical selections. Emerson, Thoreau, Flagg, Burroughs, Wilson, Audubon, and other lovers of nature are among the desirable acquaintances thus made. We need say no more in praise of these unaffected pages.

The idea of "Prang's Natural History Series for Children" (Boston) is a good one, and each of the six limp-covered parts before us is calculated to attract the eye and fix the mind of the boy or girl to whom it is offered. There is an order to them, but it is not indicated except in the text, so we name at random the Wading Birds, Swimming Birds, Scratching Birds, Birds of Prey, Cat Family, and Cow Family. The plan is to put one or more colored-lithographic figures on a page, and to describe them in story form, as if a family of children and their elders were actually inspecting them. The text is by Mr. Norman A. Calkins and Mrs. A. M. Diaz ; the latter, we suppose, furnishing the "specific levity" which keeps up the interest. Readable it certainly is. The pictures are rather feebly drawn, but are fairly characteristic.

* * * Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Aikman (Rev. W.), Life at Home, new ed.	(S. R. Wells & Co.) \$1 50
Arnold (Rev. T. K.), Henry's First Latin Book	(Rivingtons)
Barrows (Mrs. W.), Little Pilgrim Question-Book	(Congregational Pub. Co.) 15
Bates (Clara D.), More Classics of Babyland	(D. Lothrop & Co.) 50
Browning (Mrs. E. B.), Poetical Works	(Jas. Miller)
Evenings with the Poets	"
Gardner (D.), Grounds and Buildings of the Centennial Exhibition, Philadelphia	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Gladstone (Mrs. G.), Stick to the Raft	(Congregational Pub. Co.) 75
Illustrated Book of Songs for Children	(Jas. Miller)
Jerram (C. S.), Xenophon's Anabasis, Book II	(Macmillan & Co.) 75
Kirkland (Miss E. S.), Short History of France for Young People	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.) 1 50
Lalchon (A.), Poems	(A. Williams & Co.)
Lear (H. L. S.), For Days and Years	(Rivingtons)
Selection from Pascal's Thoughts	"
Leffèvre (A.), La Philosophie	(F. W. Christern)
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Merry (W. W.), Homer's Odyssey, Books xii.—xxiv.	" 1 50
Miller (Mary E.), Brother Ben ; and the Bird Summer	(Congregational Pub. Co.) 1 00
Phelps (Prof. A.), Studies of the Old Testament	" 1 25
Frickard (A. O.), <i>Æschylus: Prometheus Unbound</i>	(Macmillan & Co.) 75
Roe (Rev. E. F.), A Face Illumined	(Dodd & Mead) 1 50
Stoddard (R. H.), Adventures in Fairy-Land	(Jas. Miller) 1 25
Stories about Animals	"
Stowe (Mrs. H. B.), Uncle Tom's Cabin	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 3 50
Symonds (J. A.), Percy Bysshe Shelley	(Harper & Bros.) 75
The Church Builder for 1878	(Rivingtons)
The Light: Is it Waning?	(Congregational Pub. Co.) 1 00
Thomson (J.), The Seasons	(Jas. Miller)
Todd (Rev. J. E.) and Riddle (Rev. M. B.), National Question-Book	(Congregational Pub. Co.) 15
Notes on the International Sabbath-School Lessons for 1879	(Congregational Pub. Co.) 1 25
Waldstein (C.), Balance of Emotion and Intellect	(C. Kegan Paul & Co.)
Ward (Prof. A. W.), Old English Drama: Select Plays	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 00
Weisse (Dr. J. A.), Origin, Progress, and Destiny of the English Language and Literature	(J. W. Bouton)
Wesley (C.), Jesus, Lover of My Soul	(D. Lothrop & Co.) 1 00
Wilson (A.), Leisure-Time Studies	(R. Worthington) 2 50
Winter (W.), Edwin Booth's Prompt-books; Fool's Revenge; Katharine and Petruchio	(Lee & Shepard) 50

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